

# COMPARATIVE EDUCATION REVIEW

*The official organ of the Comparative Education Society*

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Vol. 3, No. 2

October 1959

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# COMPARATIVE EDUCATION REVIEW

Vol. 3, No. 2, October, 1959

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## EDITORIAL

This issue of the *Comparative Education Review* continues the expansion in size begun with volume 3. It also welcomes the accession to the Board of Editors of Dr. Franz Hilker, a distinguished German educator. The contribution of Germany to the study of comparative education has been substantial and real. We owe to it Friedrich Schneider's *Triebkräfte Der Pädagogik Der Völker*. It originated and guides *The International Review of Education*, now edited in Hamburg by Walther Merck and associates. In the last decades, from the School of International Pedagogical Studies at Frankfurt and from Berlin respectively, came *Die Schulen in West Europa*, co-edited by Erich Hylla, and *Vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft*, edited by Hans Epe. Oberschulrat Hilker heads the *Pädagogische Arbeitsstelle* in Bonn. His and his Center's contribution to Comparative Education will be described in the next issue.

Comparative Education Society, in conjunction with the Commission on International Education of Phi Delta Kappa, has announced a second field study in the Soviet Union for 1960, to comprise Moscow, Alma Ata, Tbilisi and Kharkow. The report of the first field study, which took place in 1958, will be published by Houghton Mifflin this fall as *The Changing Soviet School* (edited by William W. Brickman, Gerald H. Read, and George Z. F. Bereday, with the assistance of Ina Schlesinger). The 1959 field study took a team of 22 persons to Japan and Korea.

Two new comparative education series were inaugurated recently. The first, published in paperback form, is the report of the International Fellow appointed annually by Kappa Delta Pi. The series began with Joseph Justman's *The Italian People and their Schools*, advertised in the last number. A second volume, on Rhodesian education,

is due to appear this fall and was written by Francis Parker, whose article appears in this issue. The second series, by the University of Pittsburgh, is advertised in this copy of the *Review* and was inaugurated by Samuel Everett's *Growing up in English Secondary Schools*. It has been followed by a book on Soviet education written by George Counts.

Among other comparative writings the following deserve mention:

*Thoughts on Comparative Education; Festschrift for Pedro Rosselló*; a special issue of the *International Review of Education* containing methodological essays by I. L. Kandel, J. A. Lauwerys, N. Hans, C. A. Anderson, R. Dottrens, Ph. J. Idenburg, L. Fernig and R. D. Hochleitner.

UNESCO. *Comparative Education*, Educational Abstracts, February 1958, Vol. X. No. 2, pp. 15, a bibliography of comparative education sources; and C. G. Richards (ed.), *The Provision of Popular Reading Materials*, Monographs on Fundamental Education, XII, 1959, pp. 298.

Philip J. Idenburg, *Inleiding Tot De Vergelijkende Opvoed Kunde* (Introduction to Comparative Education), J. B. Wolters, Groningen, Holland, 1959, 52 pp.

I. L. Kandel, "Current Issues on Expanding Secondary Education," *International Review of Education* Vol. V. No. 2, 1959, pp. 155-165. This issue contains also articles on South Africa, France and the United States. Vol. V, No. 1, 1959 includes F. Lilge's "Impressions of Soviet Education" (pp. 11-27), and articles on Belgium, Burma and Morocco.

Joseph S. Roucek, "The Status and Role of American and Continental Professors. A Comparison of Two Educational Traditions," *Journal of Higher Education* Vol. XXX, No. 5, May, 1959, pp. 260-265.

Muriel Beadle, "Are British Schools Better than Ours?" *The Saturday Evening Post*, September 12, 1959, pp. 19-24.

Francesca Ciancio "La formazione degli insegnanti della scuola primaria nel mondo" (Education of teachers for the primary schools of the world), *Rivista di Legislazione Scolastica Comparata*, Vol. XVII, No. 2-3, March-

- June, 1959, pp. 65-82; also in this issue are articles on France, Spain, USSR, and Belgium.
- Mark G. Field, "Soviet Science and American Society," *Journal of International Affairs*, Vol. XIII, No. 1, Winter, 1958-59, pp. 19-33.
- John F. Johnson, "A New Zealander's View of American Education," *School Life*, April, 1959, Vol. 41, No. 6, pp. 4-8.
- R. Walters, "Is Soviet Education Borrowing from the U. S.?", *School and Society*, May 9, 1959, Vol. 87, No. 2153, pp. 217-218; also in this issue is an article on the Teachers Union of Japan.
- W. M. Alexander and J. A. Saylor, *Modern Secondary Education*, Rinehart, N. Y. 1959. Part 3 of this textbook is a review of secondary education in England, France, West Germany and the Soviet Union. (Also received for review from the publisher: W. H. Dutton and J. A. Hockett, *The Modern Elementary School*, and R. C. Preston, *Teaching Study Habits and Skills*.)
- L. S. Botts and J. Solomon, *Complete Handbook on Educational Systems: British, French, Russian, American*. National Debate Research Company, Chicago, 1958 (mimeographed) pp. 214.
- Robert J. Havighurst, "Russian and American Education—Like and Unlike," *Educational Record*, Vol. 40, No. 3, July, 1959, pp. 218-27; also in Vol. 40, No. 2, April, 1959: P. Tomkins, "University Education in Australia and New Zealand; Some observations."
- C. H. Koenig, "Afro-Asian Education," *Colleges and Universities*, Vol. 34, No. 2, Winter, 1959, pp. 180-5.
- P. P. Rogers, "Soviet education and American democracy," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. 10, No. 1, March, 1959, pp. 60-4.
- "Learning in Other Cultures," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 16, No. 7, April, 1959, pp. 393-464; a special issue containing general articles on comparative education and cross-cultural anthropological approach and area studies on Japan, Thailand, India, Nepal and Afghanistan.
- A. W. Chapline "European Education, pro and con," *Clearing House*, Vol. 33, No. 5, March, 1959, pp. 393-6; also Walter Hahn, "Text-books in European High Schools," pp. 396-400.
- M. L. Cogan, "Some Comparisons of American and European programs," *National Education Association Journal*, Vol. 48, No. 4, April, 1959, p. 28.
- J. B. Conant, "Education of the academically talented in Europe and the United States; with discussion," *Proceedings of the Middle*

*States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools*, 1958, pp. 41-70.

Among contributions to this issue, Dr. Lauwerys's review of the work of the London Center continues the series of reports on comparative education activities around the world. Dr. King's article on comprehensive schools sheds significant light on the mechanics of British reform. Mr. Wilson's paper inaugurates coverage of Holland, and is a sequence to Church and State articles by N. Hans (France and Italy, CER Vol. 2, No. 2), and F. Belsky (Israel, CER, Vol. 2, No. 1). Dr. Powell's contribution is a book review. Dr. Read presents the text of the constitution which has given the Comparative Education Society a permanent legal framework.

Mr. Wiloch's and Mr. Vogel's articles illustrate the two contradictory aspects of Soviet education. The "progressive" search for new ways of learning and the "conservative" clinging to the old patterns of indoctrination are both characteristic of the Soviet system in this period of the "great transition." We now have on record new evidence of Admiral Rickover's comparative expertise (*New York Times*, August 9, 1959, p. 1). After two weeks in the Soviet Union and four days in Poland he claims to have ascertained (through an interpreter?) the state of these countries' education. In the face of such rash competition, the specialists in Comparative Education must redouble their efforts to collect and present soberly balanced accounts of the communist experiments. In this connection one might single out for mention F. Lilje's *Anton Semyonovitch Makarenko; An Analysis of His Educational Ideas in the Context of Soviet Society* (University of California Press, Berkeley, 1958.) This monograph may serve as a model of wise limitation of focus, and good reliance on Russian and foreign as well as English sources, without which no work in comparative education can merit sound reputation.

G. Z. F. B.

# COMPARATIVE EDUCATION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON

JOSEPH A. LAUWERYS

Great Britain has a long and distinguished tradition of work in Comparative Education, symbolized by the names of Matthew Arnold and Michael Sadler. The University of London has always contributed to the maintenance of that tradition. Soon after the first World War Dr. Nicholas Hans was appointed to a Lectureship and later to a Readership at King's College. His work is now carried on by Dr. E. J. King, who was appointed Lecturer in 1955. The Institute of Education has maintained a chair in Comparative Education since the election of Professor J. A. Lauwerys in 1947. In 1958 the staff of the department was augmented by the appointment of Mr. Brian Holmes as Lecturer in Comparative Education. Several other members of the Institute also have an interest in the field. The Department of Education in Tropical Areas especially and the Overseas Division must be mentioned in this connection.

Comparative Education training is offered to candidates for the Master's and Doctor's degrees at home and overseas. Offerings include a lecture course and a seminar by the department members. Three sections of the seminar specialize in area studies, usually the USA, Indian Peninsula, and France. Since 1948 the department has been in editorial charge of the *Year Book of Education*, published by Evans Brothers, and since 1953 jointly with Teachers College, Columbia University. Its other and numerous activities and publications have been reported on in biannual reports.

During the years 1956-58, with which the present condensed report deals, the international work at London has been strengthened and extended. Collaboration with organisations throughout the world

has been maintained and new contacts have been made. With Teachers College, Columbia University, three *Year Books of Education* have been published: 'Education and Economics' (September 1956), 'Education and Philosophy' (August 1957), and 'The Secondary School Curriculum' (May 1958). When Dr. R. King Hall resigned early in 1957 Professor George Bereday became American Joint Editor of the *Year Book*. He spent some days at the Institute in February 1958, during which time he lectured to students in the Department. Both Dr. E. J. King and Mr. Holmes were invited to spend some time at Teachers College during the summer of 1957 and gave lectures there.

The Comparative Education tours to Europe initiated in 1938 by Dr. R. Schairer have continued to attract many students from the Institute and from the Departments of Education in Oxford and Reading. A number of members of the Leicester Department of Education and other institutions also joined the tours. Altogether 112 people went to Paris; 91 to Denmark; 67 to the Netherlands; and 80 to Austria. For the first time a tour (34 members) to Italy was organised in 1958. Among the participants of these tours some 25 countries were represented.

A number of conferences have enabled members of the Department to exchange views with colleagues in other parts of the world. Following an Anglo-German conference of Professors of Education held at the Institute, a return visit was made to Germany by Professor Lauwerys. He also acted as Chairman to the Conference on General Education held at the UNESCO Institute in Hamburg in October 1957; the previous year Mr. Holmes was there for a similar

conference on the science curriculum. In September and October 1957 Dr. Hans attended international conferences, in Paris (on American Studies in Europe) and in Florence (on Research in Education). Prior to visiting Russia, Professor Lauwerys attended a conference of international scholars in Istanbul (1957).

The compilation of a glossary of educational terms (on English speaking countries other than the USA) is now being carried out at the invitation of UNESCO. Eventually it will be included in an International Glossary for the use of research workers in the field of education. In this project many friends throughout the United Kingdom have co-operated.

Recently a number of new Institutes have been established throughout the world (notably at Kyushu, Japan, in Moscow<sup>1</sup> and in Chicago) for the study of Comparative Education. Close contact has been established and maintained with each of them. Dr. Chase and Dr. Richey of Chicago visited the Institute (Summer 1958). Professor Lauwerys spent three months at the Research Institute of Comparative Education and Culture, Kyushu University (Summer 1956) during which time he lectured and discussed possible research programmes. During winter 1957-58 a research team under the Director of the Institute, Professor M. Hiratsuka, visited Europe to make a comparative education field study of moral education in England, Germany and France. They came to the Institute first, where a steering conference was organised by the Department. To this meeting Professor Dobinson of Reading and Professor Oliver of Manchester were invited. Subsequently the team worked in these two areas. The Department has also been pleased to welcome a number of other educators from Japan.

In addition, informal discussions have been held from time to time with many for-

<sup>1</sup> Described in the last issue of *Comparative Education Review*.

eign guests, some of whom have lectured in the Academic Diploma courses. Among the countries represented might be mentioned France (M. Renandeaue), Holland (Professor Langeveld), Finland (Dr. Kyöstiö), Italy (Professor Volpicelli), Norway (Mr. H. Grude-Forfang), Canada (Professor Paplauskus-Ramunus), Burma (U Po Hto), China (Professor Ching-Chin), Lebanon (President Zurayk and Professor Shalla), and the U.S.A. (Professor Bereday, Dean Chase, Professor Havighurst, Dr. Male, Dr. Olsen, and Professor Richey).

Many visits abroad have been made by members of the Department. Professor Lauwerys (University of Southern California 1957), Dr. E. J. King (Memphis State College 1956 and University of British Columbia 1957); and Mr. Holmes (University of Illinois 1956, Kent State University 1957) all taught in summer sessions in North America. Dr. King gave a public lecture at the University of Washington, Seattle (1957) and Mr. Holmes delivered the Bode Memorial Lectures at Ohio State University (1956). Public lectures were given by Professor Lauwerys during his visits to the Middle East, Ceylon, India and Kashmir in 1956. In Japan that summer he lectured at the University of Tokyo and elsewhere. During the Easter vacation in 1957 he revisited China as a member of a small cultural delegation from England. Contact was made by him with developments in comparative education in the USSR during the visit he paid to that country in October 1957. He gave public lectures at the University of Moscow and in Kiev, Leningrad and Khar'kov. In April 1958 Professor Lauwerys lectured at the Higher Teachers Training College, Trondheim, and in Copenhagen; in May at the University of Brussels. During summer 1958 he visited universities in the Union of South Africa and in the Belgian Congo.

The number of students preparing for higher degrees in the field of Comparative Education is twenty.

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# NEW MODELS IN SOVIET EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

J. TADEUSZ WILOCH

Until recently, the Soviet schools were considered to be classical examples of a unified educational system. The subject matter taught, as well as the methods of teaching, were comparable if not identical throughout the nation. In general, the whole structure of the educational process was characterized by extreme uniformity. No doubt several elements of this situation persist today. At present one still finds a rather uniform basis in the content and method of teaching. Despite some changes in the Soviet school structure, Russian education is still quite different from that in the United States.

But the new trends in Soviet education are beginning to assert themselves. The increasing bond between formal education and other aspects of community life is bringing about greater differentiation in training. School authorities have come to recognize that formal education could and should be adapted to local community needs. As a result of experimentation with various teaching programs there is emerging a certain number of model schools which in the near future will inevitably provide new standards for other educational institutions. It is the purpose of this article to describe some characteristics of a few typical schools based on the new educational model.

## *School No. 204 in Moscow*

This school is the basic school of the Institute of Methods of the RSFSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences and as such faithfully follows the regulations laid down for

the so-called "fifty-school experiment." The fundamentals of this training rest on a combination of formal education with productive work. The period of training has been extended for an additional year (thus initiating the transition from the 10-year to the 11-year school) in order to make room for polytechnical and specialized vocational subjects. The formal content of the curriculum is the same as in the 10-year schools.

The first eight years of training are given to formal education; students acquire basic skills which can be applied later in further scholastic training or in trade specialization.

All teaching is done in the classrooms. Field trips designed to acquaint a student with the application of learned skills are rather rare. Elements of polytechnical training are included in the study of mathematics and biology and in such courses as drafting and workshop. The school program is identical for all students, except in grades five to seven. During these two years girls substitute home economics course (cooking, sewing, cutting, embroidering, etc.) for the workshop in wood-work. Beyond this level, all students are required to gain theoretical and practical knowledge in work with metals, as well as courses in technology and horticulture.

Beginning with the ninth grade students are exposed to trade practicums. They begin their "productive training" in factories associated with the particular school. During this time students attend classes for three days each week, spending the remaining three days in a selected factory. The school schedule is so organized that each student spends one day in the classroom and the next one in the factory. Vocational specialty

<sup>1</sup> Translated from Polish by George Z. F. Bereday and Christina Gidynski.



training involves lectures by factory engineers and observation of the production process in an industrial setting. These activities are treated only as a "general" orientation.

Tenth-grade students join work brigades and serve three days a week for six hours daily in selected, salaried factory jobs. At this point they join trade unions and participate fully in all phases of factory life. Successful completion of qualifying examinations in grade 11 gives each student the right to work independently in the selected trade. School diplomas are recognized as prerequisites for further university training as well as a qualification for skilled work.

#### *School No. 315 in Moscow*

This school is also a basic school of the Institute of Method of the RSFSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, but it employs a new system of combining formal education with productive work. It is amply equipped with workshops and laboratories in which, beginning with the fifth grade, students spend all of their school time. Classroom teaching is held to a minimum and ends in the fourth grade. Thanks to this system the school operates on only one (morning) shift, although there are less classrooms than student groups.

The school also differs in the methods by which it fulfills its program. Handicrafts are confined to primary grades. Already from the fifth grade, and through the eighth grade, children must work on projects ordered through associated industrial factories. The income from successfully completed projects of this sort is used for sightseeing excursions. Production ordered by a factory takes about two hours a week of the student's time. Since most of the jobs assigned by the factory are pretty routine and thus uninteresting, and yet are undertaken under a contract binding the school administration and the sponsoring pioneer organization, the youth are asked to compete for high quality results with other student groups.

This competition is a feature of all aspects of school life. Among other things, points are awarded for good order and cleanliness. The school attempts in this way to foster student self-service and self-government. It also encourages student participation in various productive community activities. The eighth-grade graduates are also required to obtain farming experience by field work during their vacation periods.

In the ninth grade all students are exposed to general vocational training. Two trade specialties are offered: universal turnery (in school workshops) and electro-mechanics (in factories). The third specialty, pastry making, still in the planning stage, will be available for girls when arrangements with an appropriate factory have been completed.

Having mastered the basic skills in the field of technology, and having become well acquainted with work organization, the 10th graders join the ranks of productive workers. They work twice weekly for six hours a day in an industrial setting and receive salaries for their work.

According to this system classroom learning is limited to four days in grades nine and 10. This is also anticipated to be the rule in the new lesson plans for all 11-year day schools. The experience of School No. 315 suggests that these are sufficient conditions for the fulfillment of the entire formal school plan. The teaching staff of the school takes the position that the problem lies not in the extent of the school program but in the methods of teaching. It is felt that improvement of offerings, so as to stimulate further interest and motivation for learning, can assure thorough educational attainment in a short period of time. Among others, significant results are claimed for the rapid acquisition of the knowledge of the English language, taught along these principles.

#### *School No. 607 in Moscow*

School No. 607 is an "ordinary" school which does not follow the policy of the

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Academy of Pedagogical Sciences but rather is carrying out an interesting experiment of its own. The formal subject matter taught is that required by the new educational standards, in force for half the schools of the Russian Republic, in which more emphasis is placed on applied aspects of particular subjects. The training period has been extended to 11 years, and consequently more time is allotted to practical activities. The program runs as follows. In grades one through seven, two hours a week are given to handicrafts. From the fifth grade on, however, training takes place not only in school workshops but also in a nearby factory. The school has only one carpentry workshop. Thus when half the pupils of grades five to seven work on the school grounds, the remainder are trained in the factory. This is arranged on a six months' rotation basis; students who have spent six months in the school workshop are transferred to the factory, and vice versa. This schedule concerns boys only; girls study home economics during this time.

In the eighth grade all students are trained on factory jobs for three hours weekly; in the ninth grade—one day a week. During vacation periods the eighth graders work for a month on a farm and the ninth grade students devote one month to work in factories to replace workers who are on vacation; Student salaries for the various jobs done as part of training are used for sight-seeing excursions.

The actual vocational training is generally introduced in grades 10 and 11. This training is based on the following three conditions.

- 1) Politechnization. Technical training extends beyond simple skills of a mechanical nature. The students are required to use their initiative and apply the knowledge gained during the general education period.

- 2) Factory needs. Laboratory courses would be useful to school children, but factories, well staffed in research cadres, are reluctant to use students in this way. Thus

pupils do not undergo industrial research training but work in production.

- 3) Student needs. Programs of activities are geared to the interests and abilities of students.

Since this particular school is located near an oil industry, grade 10 and 11 students may select problems in mechanical drawing, casting of metals, or general mechanics for their study. Students are required to work in a factory three times a week for six hours daily and attend classes for the remaining three days each week. The field experience (factory work) is closely tied with the related theoretical courses taught by specially trained factory engineers. During the first year of vocational training all student participants are treated as trainees despite the fact that they are paid one half the full-time worker's salary. In the 11th grade, however, the students are employed as fully salaried factory workers.

Although this experiment has been under way for only two weeks, there is enough evidence to show that the standards of education have increased in the new setting. A comparison with "control" classes of an ordinary 10-year school has shown that under the new system students exhibit more interest in learning; that studies are more concrete and, therefore, easier to understand; and that the youngsters appreciate more deeply the reasons and meaning of school work. The primary goal of this type of education is, of course, the formation of the proper social attitudes. This is the main reason for the current Soviet school reforms, although the school authorities do not define it clearly in this way.

#### *School No. 544 in Moscow*

The teaching system of this particular school has interesting qualities of its own. Beginning with grade four, the children work two to three hours a day in school workshops and the income from this productive work comes close to *one and a half million rubles a year*. School No. 544 is still

a 10-year school, although it manages to achieve substantially the 11-year program of the experimental schools.

Director Kostiashkin of this school is a pedagogue of note; his only problem is the expected directive to switch to the 11-year type which will throw his program out of gear. The school is new, exists only four years and serves a new settlement of families which previously had the worst kind of living conditions. About half the student body comes from this settlement and, hence, the lowest socio-economic classes. The other half are former pupils of an institute for delinquent children and youth beyond school age from various city regions. These special conditions determine the teaching system employed to avoid boredom and to help the youngsters work out their energies in approved school ways. The combination of formal education with physical and manual work appears to have been effective. The school has succeeded in mastering its students. The scholastic standards seem to be satisfactory, the school atmosphere appears to be normal and the students are well prepared for their future social duties. The pending addition of the 11th grade is thus risking too long a period of education, may blunt the interest and motivation among the students, and throw additional hardship upon the parents forced to support nearly adult children.

Incidentally the dilemma of this school throws light upon general problems raised by the current Soviet school reform. It is little known that the authorities had to give up the plan for universal 10-year education based on formal training because of the poor response to their proposals. An analysis of the status of the 1958-59 plan of universalization of the 10-year school in the Russian republic indicates that the plan was not fulfilled because too few youngsters were willing to enter grades eight to 10.<sup>2</sup>

Today, the type of training represented

<sup>2</sup> Compare *Sbornik Prikazov Ministerstva Prosveshchenia RSFSR*, Nr. 4, 1959.

by School No. 544 appears to be gaining favor among Soviet educators. One of its greatest assets is the incorporation of industrial field experience directly on school premises. This makes possible the control of the overall educational standards. Large industrial workshops form a part of the school and are under the direction of a special bookkeeper. The workshop employs a stockroom supervisor, a production manager, a planning engineer, and several workers who perform hard labor harmful to youngsters, such as preparation of raw materials, galvanization, painting, etc.

The drawing up of production plans and the division of income lies in the realm of the student government. It appears from the testimonial of the director and minutes of the student committees that this self-government has some influence in the institutional set-up. The bi-weekly meetings of the committees have a serious character. The school workshops are treated with great respect by the student, since they deal with real production. Students exercise quality-control themselves and often reject the work of their colleagues for even minor deficiencies. The products of the school workshop, furniture, school furnishings, educational aids and sport equipment must conform strictly to technical specifications and to the principles of aesthetics and hygiene.

The large part of produced goods is offered for sale, although a good portion of the useful articles produced in the workshops are given to the school, to the kindergarten sponsored by the school, and to other community institutions. All income from sales is placed either in the investment fund, in a community chest, or in a fund to be divided among the actual producers of the goods.

Beginning with the seventh grade, a youngster may be paid directly for his work provided he meets the following conditions:

- 1) Has a minimum of 150 rubles in his account.

- 2) Has obtained a grade of excellent in his work and deportment.

The student's income is recorded in a special student book which can be checked by parents. Income accruing yearly is paid directly to the parents.

The workshop production is not considered a definite vocational specialization, although from the sixth grade on students are required to take qualifying Spring examinations. Actual vocational training begins in the ninth grade in an electro-mechanical institute outside the school. Students may select one of 13 specializations offered. Selection takes place six months after the commencement of vocational training, after the wishes of the parents have been checked against the opinions of master-craftsmen and pedagogues. The training makes it possible to obtain several related specializations. All of the vocational training is supervised by a school representative.

The incorporation of factory training into formal education makes it necessary to modify classroom schedules. Because the students work daily in workshops and in grades nine and 10 are in the factory two half-working days a week, the school buildings are open to pupils from morning till night, providing the students with a place to eat and rest. It is noteworthy that the amount of homework is quite small. In grades one to seven it is almost nonexistent. Due to the extensive time allowed for classroom learning of the three R's the youngsters do not need much preparation outside of school. Class size is limited to 20 students. The active character of the school process ensures good success.

#### *School No. 62 in Ufa (Eastern Siberia)*

In its basic educational structure, School No. 62 is quite similar to School No. 544 in Moscow. Here, however, the long distance (11 kilometers) from the nearest factory makes it impossible to integrate factory training with formal education. Industrial field experience is obtained by the students

in grades nine and 10 through monthly work in some factory during vacation periods. With this exception, all other training takes place on the school grounds. Although school workshops are thus far inadequately equipped, they already handle many orders from the factories under contract and make other useful objects.

In its social organization, this school is a good example of "children's republic." The highly organized student government controls nearly all of the school activities. Both the students and faculty strive to secure and to maintain a high educational and politechnical level. In addition much attention is given to the development of correct social attitudes among students. This type of school may well become a general model for other provincial schools in the Soviet Union.

#### *Ten-Year rural school in Pawlisz, Ukraine*

The faculty of this school dissented from the popular tendency in the Ukraine toward "professionalism" in school programs. They did not limit themselves, however, to the usual broadening of politechnical horizons in teaching formal subjects. They feel that the major task of the school should be the stimulating of student interests and developing their innate abilities. They feel that attitudes towards education are as important as knowledge and skills.

The Pawlisz educators believe that the incorporation of productive work into the programs of general education fails to give good results. Most students consider this type of work a necessary evil. The school administration holds that the exposure of students to work situations can be profitable only when from the earliest years the school takes care to nourish curiosity in the phenomena of nature and technological environment. Only in this way can students be prepared for a deepened understanding of social and productive realities. It is believed that diversification of technical training in

accordance with the student's interests and abilities provides a suitable atmosphere in which vocational interests and abilities can flourish.

In applying their educational philosophy, Pawlisz educators teach transferable skills rather than specialized skills applicable to a limited range of occupations. They do not train tractor operators although each student takes a tractor and automobile course; they do not train "agrotechnicians" nor "zootechicians" although each student gets a work qualification partly through his school program and partly through the cultivation of his own interests. The relative freedom given students in the selection of manual tasks coupled with the inspiration provided by the staff ensures a relaxed atmosphere and good pedagogical results. There are few attempts to "escape" from the Kolhoz, in contrast to its frequent occurrence elsewhere. On the contrary, students come to love agricultural work and labor willingly as simple country workers.

In addition the caliber of education is maintained at an adequately high level, primarily because the lessons lay great emphasis on the interests and experiences of children. The whole organization of the school as well as classroom instruction develop student initiative and resourcefulness.

The educational system evolved through experimentation at the school in Pawlisz is gaining popularity not only throughout the Ukraine, but also in other republics of the Soviet Union. Recently, the educators at the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences agreed with the principles applied in the Pawlisz school system, stressing the importance of

student initiative and activities in learning. The school's director, W. Suchomlinski, has been awarded Academy membership in recognition of his significant publications and experiments.

#### *School No. 710 in Moscow*

School No. 710 is another of the schools which attempt to utilize fully student interests and talents. Its program for the first eight grades is uniform for all students, although a few additions have been made; students in grades five to seven take dancing and games in addition to the regular subject matter. Perhaps the most interesting aspect of this educational system is the special consideration given to the fifth graders. Children of this age are considered to be rather difficult to manage and great emphasis is placed on providing them with opportunities to develop their interests and abilities. For this reason the school strongly stresses special-purpose "circles" which give the children an opportunity for self-expression. Much of the educational process in extracurricular activities centers also on student self-government and specifically, student self-service. The school makes a particular effort not to force children but rather to prepare them to exercise intelligent choices when specialization comes in senior grades.

In grades nine to 11 the students are faced with the choice of one of three programs: chemistry major, humanities major, or technology and physics major. The differences between these three programs are significant. They can best be portrayed in terms of classroom hours required for each of the basic subjects in the ninth grade.

Major	Chemistry	SUBJECTS		Physics
		Languages		
		Russian	Foreign	
Chemistry	6	3	3	4
Humanities	2	5	4	3
Physics and Technology	3	3	3	5

The above differences in classroom hours are superimposed upon a regular program in other subjects.

Specialization in each major field is reached by special selection of contents to be taught, by participation in specialized "circles," selected field trips and specialized field experience, and by special practical exercises. For instance, the physics-technology majors work out problems in the field of radio, television, and photographic camera. The humanities majors, on their part, specialize in editing, publishing and library science. They make field trips and work as apprentices in appropriate institutions; in their classroom work they devote many hours to typing and steno, and they work on preparation of literary essays. Many of this group plan entering the teaching profession, while physics and chemistry majors expect to enter industrial production. This divergence of interests has now been recognized in different programs.

Classes are sorted out in accordance with the wishes of the youngsters. At present there are 32 physics majors, chiefly boys, and 24 chemistry and humanities majors respectively, for the most part girls. There have been only three cases of change of major and two cases of transfer to the regular 10-year school so far.

School No. 710 is a basic experimental school of the Academy of Pedagogical Science. It is under the direct guidance of M. Melnikov, science secretary of the Academy.

#### *Boarding School No. 19 in Moscow*

One of the outstanding characteristics of this school is the absence of factory training as a part of the program, which indicates that "tying school to life" need not mean only factory practice. The vocational training takes place in the school's famous printing-publishing workshop. All students from the fifth grade on spend some of their time printing textbooks and other educational pamphlets. The workshop was organized

about a year ago and is already well equipped, mostly through community donations; for instance, a Moscow printing shop contributed one million rubles worth of printing equipment. The school shop has been a source of considerable revenue. The income this year enabled the school to buy a bus, tents, camping kit, etc., thus enabling the children to make excursions in their own vehicle.

The work experience in the printing house gives the students not only general educational experience but also, upon graduation, a printer's diploma which entitles the bearer to obtain independent work in the field. There is no other specialization in the school and even regular handicrafts are partly given up, except in school circles. The general educational program has not been changed, but some innovations have been introduced into the extra-curricular activities. Among these are: imaginary sightseeing trips abroad related to artistic activities through which the children reconstruct them; birthday celebrations with gifts prepared manually by the children, etc. In general the atmosphere of this school approaches closely that of a family house.

#### *Boarding School No. 12 in Moscow*

This is an experimental school of the Institute of Theory and History of Education of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences. It came into being as a result of a resolution of the 20th Party Congress. The student body comprises some 300 orphans and children from broken homes. About one third of the children are fully state-supported; for the rest parents pay a nominal fee. The expense involved in the operation of this school is equivalent to the cost of operation of three regular state schools training about 1200 students each. Thus, children are ensured very good material conditions. And, in addition, the school is served by an excellent team of educators.

There are problems arising out of the development of this type of school. Accord-



ing to the school plan they are to house two and a half million children within seven years. The cost of their upkeep would equal that of all other Soviet schools taken together. This implies that funds allocated for boarding schools alone could improve material conditions of all other schools in the USSR by about 100 per cent. In addition, most of the present boarding schools (as does School No. 12) lack space facilities and the proposed new buildings are estimated to cost five times more than the buildings for regular schools. These problems are being weighed at present by Soviet educators against the advantage of ensuring full secondary education for orphans and children from remote areas.

As might be surmised a great many students apply for admission to Boarding School No. 12 and to other such schools. Due to lack of space the authorities are forced to restrict admission, taking only those children who due to lack of means cannot obtain their education elsewhere. Special socio-pedagogical commissions make the selection, taking into consideration factors such as the incapacity of the family to educate its children properly, or the financial condition at home.

As an educational institution School No. 12 has many assets, only a few of which will be mentioned here. One of these is the boarding arrangement itself with pupils leaving the grounds only for one-day weekends. This makes it possible to hold classes all day, while giving the children adequate rest periods. As in some of the other schools, homework assignments are at minimum (none in the lower grades) since the students are given a study period immediately following each lecture hour, and remain in the charge of the same teacher for both activities. After dinner the youngsters participate in various sports and activities, such as singing, drawing, and workshops. Artistic and physical education has been prolonged and singing and drawing is now programmed through the 10th grade. The

curriculum involves an increased study of foreign languages (grades three to 11, about four hours a week). In addition there is sewing, embroidery, cooking, etc. Work instruction takes place in school workshops and laboratories.

#### *Additional General Information*

Descriptions of the model schools above would be incomplete without a few important factors not previously mentioned because they apply to all such schools.

All schools own mechanical equipment necessary for training. Automobiles and, in the country, tractors and combines, are part of the basic school equipment. Driver education is widespread in the theoretical as well as practical aspects. All students are obliged to take it in grades 10 and 11. The students receive driving licenses upon graduation, since no person under 18 is allowed to drive, according to Soviet law.

All mechanical equipment, automobiles, engines, machines and apparatus are obtained through gifts from sponsoring institutions. Each school has an assigned sponsor (an industrial factory) which provides the necessary instruments for its school. Sometimes however, the offered equipment is old or worn out and the school may purchase machinery by using the workshop income or state educational funds. The politechnical courses are organized by specially trained engineers who hold positions of assistant directors in the school system. Sometimes such positions are also given to chief engineers in the factory or to distinguished economists or agriculturists.

The model schools described above are quite typical of the new educational system as it now shapes up, but it should be kept in mind that there are many other types somewhat individualised in their structure. There is a tendency on the part of each school to find new ways of solving its own educational problems. It is quite generally felt that the present uniform state of



education is not the ideal one. Even the president of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, Professor I. Kairov, stated on March 17, 1959 that the problems of polytechnical education have not been decisively worked out. "It is correct to introduce into

school programs a systematic course on the basis of production, but the actual content of this program needs further experimentation."

Someday we should be able to judge how well this sort of education works out.

## COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND: THEIR CONTEXT

EDMUND KING

An assessment and comparison of institutions of any type must accept two principles: to compare only things that are truly comparable; and to see them correctly in their context before evaluating them. To do this last thing it is necessary to recognise: (a) that the cherished values of one society are not always highly esteemed elsewhere; (b) that where there is agreement about values there may still be disagreement about priorities (either because of preference or because of shortage of funds, institutions, and personnel); and (c) that even where there is complete agreement about all these things there may still be legitimate disagreement about methods. In the case of comprehensive schools these ancient truisms need to be emphatically insisted on.

For the purposes of this article comprehensive schools are taken to be schools catering for a full ability range of children from the age of 11 or thereabouts until they reach the end of compulsory school attendance (15 now in England) or leave to take up work or further education at a later date. It goes without saying that if there is to be a genuinely full ability range there can be no selecting-in or selecting-out of children by means of examinations or school records. Ideally, to the purists in

comprehensiveness, there should not be selection by residence or parental choice either; but the only way of ensuring this state of affairs (if desired) would be to provide only one type of secondary school, to make it include an accurate cross-section of the whole community, and to eliminate any such variants as private or parochial schools or schools attached to teachers' colleges. Such comprehensiveness does not exist even in the communist countries. It would not be tolerated in the United States, and it would be tolerated still less in Britain.

Even if comprehensiveness were desired in a considerably modified form, it would not be possible in Britain on a large scale for many years to come because of the following difficulties: (a) the wide range of publicly provided secondary schools now in existence, mainly small by American standards, which offer education differentiated by "age, aptitude," etc.; (b) the unusually large number of fairly autonomous tax-supported schools (e.g. the parochial or "voluntary" schools which may have up to 95 per cent of their running costs met out of public funds; and many nondenominational schools of ancient foundation or experimental character, which have some public sup-

port); (c) the career power, social prestige, and academic excellence of many of the relatively small number of completely independent schools (including but not confined to the "Public Schools"); (d) the unreadiness of public opinion to accept the "comprehensive" principle; (e) the experimental and gradualist approach of those who do favor it; (f) a real shortage of funds, materials, and teachers; and (g) a genuine anxiety lest Britain's bread and butter, substantially earned by skill in a competitive world, be lost by failure to develop "intelligence" and professional expertise because of premature reliance on an experiment still in its early and uncertain stages in Britain.

These difficulties, partly real and material, and partly ideological and sociological but no less potent for that, must be accepted at face value before the story and the problems of Britain's comprehensive schools can be appreciated. Readers are referred to Chapter Four in this writer's *Other Schools and Ours* (Rinehart, New York, 1958) and to two articles by Professor G. Z. F. Bereday: "A comparative approach to social status in English education," contained in *Liberal Traditions in Education*, ed. Bereday, (Harvard, 1958); and "Equal Opportunity" in the (English) *Journal of Education*, (February, 1958).<sup>1</sup> Professor Bereday's first essay, in this writer's opinion, overstates the case; but it bears a recognizable likeness. After facing up to these practical difficulties and the institutional and ideological obstacles, we can only be amazed that comprehensive schools have been established with such enthusiasm and success, and that the comprehensive principle is being widely extended to modify conventional-type schools in readiness for a comprehensive pattern in the future.

#### *The Substitute for the Comprehensive Principle*

It is well known that most of the com-

pletely comprehensive schools in England have been established under the jurisdiction of the London County Council. In Britain the counties, or the cities of status equivalent to counties, are the responsible education authorities. Under the general supervision of the (political) Minister of Education, as advised by the permanent (nonpolitical) staff of the Ministry of Education, the local education authorities have great autonomy. By January, 1959, the London County Council had established 23 very large comprehensive schools (some for boys, some for girls, some mixed); it had combined other types of school (grammar—academic and selective) with technical schools or with secondary modern schools in at least 25 other cases, and thus started the development of still more comprehensive schools. It had also blurred the outlines of the tripartite system, familiar from the 1944 Education Act, to such an extent that officials are reluctant to place many of the Council's schools firmly in one category, and hesitate to say how many comprehensive schools the Council has under its control. In other words, the experiment is continuing in full swing; and its repercussions in the amalgamation of schools, of courses, and of "types of mind" are so great that no one can say where they have reached or will end.

Before considering any single comprehensive school or the expanding process as seen in London, this picture of the ripples must be rounded off by taking note of some of their side-effects and more distant consequences. Partly because of the insufficiency of grammar school places available to children diagnosed as suitable for grammar school work or nearly so, but also partly because people refuse to accept the "eleven plus" examination's diagnosis as fully reliable, many secondary modern schools have for years been preparing some of their children for the kind of academic examination which was once the closed preserve of the grammar school. Though secondary-

modern children do not often have such highly educated teachers as do grammar-school pupils, and though they generally work under less favourable conditions, many of them are able to offer school subjects at the level of the General Certificate of Education, and some of them are successful enough to pass on into the prestige-carrying "sixth form" of a grammar school. Thus they are, so to speak, in the vestibule of the universities and of the technical and commercial colleges which in England are most nearly comparable with the technical and professional courses of American universities. In addition, secondary modern schools increasingly offer general and "industrial arts" kinds of education that can lead to alternative certificates and further training opportunities, which in England matter very much as the emblems of above-elementary education. This may not be social justice or educational wisdom; but it is a partial effacement of the exclusiveness of the grammar school, and it prepares the way for developments of much greater consequence. The value of the process must be assessed in an English context.

One result of internal changes in the secondary modern school is that children stay on beyond the statutory age of compulsion of 15. In the better secondary modern schools about half the pupils stay on for an extra year, and in some cases the percentage is as high as 70 or 80. The Ministry of Education states that already the number of secondary-modern pupils staying on beyond the compulsory period has risen from 12,000 in 1948 to 38,000 in 1958. It is estimated that by 1965 the number of 17-year-olds in any school will have doubled the present figure. When we recall that some 20 per cent of grammar school children (selected for "brightness" at 11) do not stay on until 16 or 17, we see that much of the increase is to be anticipated in the secondary modern school or in schools to which children have migrated after attendance at secondary modern schools. (There are not enough com-

prehensive or technical secondary schools to account for the difference). It has also been noted that some of the children who shine late in the secondary modern school or its alternatives, often despite comparatively unfavourable conditions, are not those initially spotted as "near-grammar" types.

While 66 per cent of grammar-school children are now of "working-class" origin, those sons and daughters of middle-class families who may be considered unsuitable for grammar-school courses at the "eleven plus" examination suffer thus a certain academic and social relegation. The presence of these children in the secondary modern school must clearly stimulate concern that the school be as enterprising and as humanistic as possible, and this it will generally contrive to be in the more favoured residential districts where the proportion of such children is likely to be highest. Moreover, many grammar schools and, indeed, "Public Schools" are rapidly making their programmes less bookish and more industry-oriented. This change is attributable in part to the dawning realisation that the country's future industrial progress will more fully recompense pupils who leave school with some academic and personal readiness for technological requirements; but it is also the result of direct pressure from industry. Firms dangle attractive "sandwich" courses and high-level apprenticeship schemes before those who leave grammar schools with the right qualifications or groupings of subjects. A £4,000,000 fund is being distributed by industry to the "Public Schools" to provide equipment and courses in science and technology. Some 65 per cent of boys and girls in the "sixth form" that crowns the grammar school are specialising in science. As secondary modern schools and technical schools also follow the same trend it becomes less justifiable to distinguish between the *content* of various types of secondary school than in the 1920's and 1930's, when the tripartite system was most influentially established.

All these developments, and others too numerous to mention, accumulate in the public consciousness a dim awareness (if no more) that from the point of view of *types of career* there is not so much to distinguish the various *types of school* as there used to be. Of course, there is much stratification still according to *levels of starting a career*; but that is another matter, which does not of itself affect readiness to see comprehensive or near-comprehensive schools established, especially for other people's children, and above all for the children of lower-income parents. Thus it comes about that administrators and politicians once opposed to comprehensive schools on ideological grounds are beginning to see that they are already partly here, that they are worth experimenting with as the possible solution for many pressing, practical problems. This "brass tacks" attitude may shock the purists; but it must be recorded as in keeping with: (a) the historical attitudes of British employers towards the establishment of public elementary schools in the nineteenth century, and of public secondary and university opportunities in this century; and (b) the whole pragmatic approach of the Anglo-Saxon tradition.

#### *The Advance of the Comprehensive Principle.*

By small steps the comprehensive school, which in Britain has long been mistrusted as the cause of the "backwardness" of the United States and as the instrument of "the dictatorship of the proletariat" elsewhere, has been prepared for by the spasmodic march of recent historical events no less than by the revealed shortcomings of the 1944 Education Act. Its advance was aided further by a real shortage of highly qualified specialists in science and advanced academic subjects for grammar-school teaching.

Grammar schools are still comparatively small, and it is not easy to spread the available top-level staff to the best advantage

among all the top-level children requiring them. The same goes for teachers with good industrial or commercial insight on the practical side. Therefore there develops a greater readiness for the grouping of schools to aid the fullest deployment of staff and interpenetration of subjects. The embarrassment of many grammar schools in relation to staffing is intensified in most secondary modern schools. In some of the better secondary modern schools in the more favoured suburbs of the London area it is becoming impossible to replace men teachers who resign by other men. In less favoured areas the situation is worse. (Teachers in all British schools get the same basic pay, and the same kinds of increments for qualifications, experience, and responsibility; so financial considerations alone are not the reason for this wastage from the secondary modern school in particular). Qualifications and personality salable in industry or in grammar schools cannot be secured for modern schools. Staff shortages in subjects vital to the nation's economic well-being cannot be afforded; but combining schools in various near-comprehensive ways is likely to be tried as a remedy more readily than the obvious expedient of spending more money on salaries.

Alternative ways within the present school framework (such as sending pupils out for special instruction in adult technical colleges) seem at best a makeshift. More and more it is being realised that boys and girls are not being educated in school to the right level for industries to train further. There are shortages in recruitment of apprentices.<sup>2</sup> Apart from the apprenticeships, other forms of pre-professional training are being devised or contemplated in Britain as elsewhere to put into the schools somehow a respectable, latter-day equivalent of "life adjustment."<sup>3</sup>

#### *Comprehensive Principle in Practice*

Against this rather confused but cumulatively significant background, there is less

surprise than might have been 10 years ago in discovering all kinds of experiments with all kinds of comprehensiveness in schools—especially comprehensiveness in curriculum but not excluding comprehensiveness of “types of mind.” This is particularly tempting (as has already been said) where other people’s children are concerned. At one time only the Labour Party advocated comprehensive schools, chiefly for egalitarian and social reasons, and Conservatives bitterly attacked them. It is a matter of record that a Conservative Minister of Education refused to approve some of the London County Council’s comprehensive school schemes, which included the incorporation of an existing grammar school into the new institution. Those local authorities most inclined to set up comprehensive schools or prepare the way for them are predominantly Labour in complexion. Thus the comprehensive principle in Britain is for most opponents a nasty, socialist principle. But now the Conservative Party has officially stated that it will countenance experiments with more comprehensive schools. Some Conservative-dominated local authorities have been willing to establish a more or less common curriculum for all children between the ages of 11 and 13 or 14, followed by differentiation later.

A close approximation to comprehensive schools, which does not go the whole way, is the widespread adoption of “bilateral” schools, containing an enlarged grammar school “stream” of children, with other children pursuing pre-technical and pre-commercial general education of the type often found in secondary modern schools. Obviously, most such schools are much more catholic in their intake than grammar schools proper. A few of them are highly selective on academic grounds;<sup>4</sup> some of them take a “second cream” off the secondary modern schools at the age of 13; but most are by their very nature much more comprehensive in curriculum and “types” than the grammar school. In any case, a

grammar-technical or other combined school must resemble the all-inclusive town schools of Scotland and the older secondary schools of Wales (taking in 40 per cent and more of a neighbourhood’s children) rather than the more selective grammar schools of England, which in recent decades have creamed off only about 20 to 25 per cent. Parents and administrators (though comparatively few well-qualified teachers) are now ready to experiment with them.

Almost any kind of substitute for the “genuine” grammar school (even if assessed at the lowest possible level, as seen perhaps by an ignorant parent who is nevertheless laudably ambitious for his child) is better than no near-equivalent at all. One can discern the probable drift of this tendency in some rural districts of England (e.g. in Devon, Westmoreland, and the North Riding of Yorkshire) where small secondary schools which are comprehensive in all but name have long existed.<sup>5</sup> Willy-nilly, much present experimentation with so-called bilateral schools, and much expansion of curricula, must be a sort of return to an old-style “omnibus” country grammar school, except that such schools now charge no fees and take in all children.<sup>6</sup>

Another partial adoption of the comprehensive principle which has become very famous is that known as the Leicestershire experiment. In it, all children of two designated districts go to secondary modern schools (now called high schools) at the age of 11. They stay there either until the end of compulsory schooling or until they are transferred to another type of school for continued education. There is not a uniform curriculum, for children are allowed and encouraged to take subjects for which they seem suited. With a view to possible entry to the local grammar school at the age of 14, a three-year range of courses allows children in the high school to choose subjects like French, science, and Latin. At the age of 14, however, *all* children are offered the chance of entry to the grammar school.



In one of the two districts (middle-class) 52 per cent chose the grammar school in 1958; in the other (working class, and enjoying industrial prosperity with high wages), nearly 40 per cent chose the grammar school. Obviously, a minority of these children were equal to the familiar, exactly academic curriculum of the grammar school; therefore, more technical and pre-vocational subjects have been included. These can be offered in the General Certificate of Education examination, or its equivalent. To encourage this ambition, perhaps, all parents accepting the transfer of their children must promise to keep them at school until they are at least 16.

The Leicestershire experiment is being followed with great interest everywhere. Other local authorities are considering similar plans. In Warwickshire, a populous county with a large industrial belt near Birmingham as well as typically rural areas, all the secondary modern schools which offer sound academic and pre-professional courses encouraging children to continue education after 15 are called 'high schools.' The Government's 1958 White Paper on Education suggests that other authorities might copy Warwickshire's example.

One of the most radical alterations proposed is that announced towards the end of 1958 in the county of Middlesex, which includes a large sector of the northern and western London suburbs. After political fluctuations during the past few years, Middlesex now has a Labour majority. The proposed scheme would make it the usual practice for all children in the country's primary schools to be transferred at the age of 11 to the nearest secondary school of any type. There, it is said, all types of children would be offered a full range of subjects according to aptitude and taste (including, no doubt, the taste of the parents). A press hand-out spoke of "grammar schools" (not comprehensive) for all. Bitter opposition has been voiced by parents, teachers, and many other observers—not all of them anti-

socialists by any means. Apart from the demonstrable shortage of teachers and equipment, and other possible objections, critics forecast an accelerated exodus of teachers, a migration of parents to other areas, the withdrawal of children, a marvelous boom for private schools, and an educational disaster generally.

Rather than contemplate the unknown on such a cataclysmic scale it is better to look at some actual experiments with comprehensive schools which have been running long enough to reveal some of their special problems and opportunities. Turning aside from the external embarrassments of social structure, of institutional paraphernalia from another age, and of prejudice and politics, one can come to the evolving life and ethos of these very new schools—all postwar experiments. None of them can be properly described as a new creation, no matter how new their buildings or how eager their teachers. They must be housed in very real areas (often fairly poor) for the children of parents born and educated a generation ago, employing teachers of whom the same must be said. To a large extent comprehensive schools must still be described as peripheral to English education. Some of them are eager centres for a new gospel; some are perplexed and reluctant amalgams of still unassimilated groups of children and teachers; all are the victims of too much notice and propaganda. Yet it is interesting to see that, despite the remarkable autonomy permitted to English schools, they do appear to agree approximately on various principles and methods which promise to become generally viable and fruitful in an English context already in many ways prepared for them.<sup>7</sup>

### References

<sup>1</sup> Also published in *Educational Forum*, January 1958, as "Equality, Equal Opportunity, and Comprehensive Schools in England."

<sup>2</sup> For example, in 1958 the London Master Builders' Association published a report on apprenticeship in the London region; it was stated



that 2,000 apprentices a year could be absorbed in the industry, but that only about half that number came forward.

<sup>3</sup>For example, on 16 December 1958 the British Productivity Council called a nationwide meeting of industrialists, labor union leaders, and educators to discuss experiments in "productivity education" in secondary schools. In these, people from industry had helped in the education of selected pupils in their last school year in one school district (Burton). The Council expected the scheme to be greatly expanded. [Report in *Manchester Guardian*, 17 December 1958]

<sup>4</sup>For instance the Arnold High School re-

cently established in Nottingham, with Dr. J. H. Higginson as Headmaster.

<sup>5</sup>These can be read about in *Comprehensive Education*, by R. Pedley (Gollancz, London, 1956)

<sup>6</sup>A slowly growing number from homes which can afford increasingly heavy fees goes to prestige-conferring private schools. This leakage may be of great social importance in the circumstances of England, and it may directly affect a teacher's choice of employment.

<sup>7</sup>The sequel to this article "Comprehensive Schools in England: Their Prospects," will be published in the next issue of *Comparative Education Review*.

## DUTCH SCHOOLS AND RELIGIOUS SEGMENTATION

NORMAN H. WILSON

The adoption in 1917 of equal state subsidy for public, private, and parochial schools placed the Netherlands in the forefront of countries seeking to reconcile church-state differences over education. After a 400-year seesaw struggle, the Dutch government made it possible for parents to establish or select without financial loss a school which offered the desired religious instruction. The historic fight to establish this principle demonstrates with what concern Dutch religious groups have viewed the perpetuation of their faith.

This paper will examine some results of the fostering of religious education. It will consider whether the friendly compromise between church and state tends to promote three educational worlds—Protestant, Catholic, neutral—rather than one world.

*Sources of data.* This study of religious segmentation in Dutch schools is based on a year of observation of the schools, inter-

views with parents, and discussions with educators. Much information was gained from the writer's 1955-56 observation of classes in Polderdijk, a pseudonym for a small community (population 7,000) near Utrecht. Its seven elementary and four advanced elementary schools represent religious orientations commonly found in the nation: five Protestant,<sup>1</sup> one neutral-private,<sup>2</sup> one Reformed-private, two public, and two Catholic. All but four of Polderdijk's 56 teachers were interviewed. Because of the few Catholic and university-preparatory schools in the immediate area, visits were made to these types in neighboring communities. Other insights into Dutch state-church relations were gained from Prof. Dr. M. J. Langeveld, head of the Utrecht University Pedagogical Institute and consultant for this study; from talks with officials at the Protestant, Catholic, and neutral educational research bureaus; from attending pro-

fessional meetings; from the Central Bureau of Statistics; and from visits to schools in The Hague, Amsterdam, and Utrecht.

*Evidences of religious divisions.* At the national level the extent of religious segmentation is shown by demographic maps, by election figures, by the national radio, and by types of elementary schools. Over 90 per cent of The Netherlands' Catholics inhabit southern provinces; over 80 per cent of her northern provinces are Protestant or "neutral" (nondenominational).<sup>3</sup> In the 1958 elections the Catholic party polled 33 per cent of the vote; the Socialists, drawing heavily from the Reformed groups, obtained 29 per cent; the Calvinist candidates drew almost 10 per cent. Daily radio time is allocated to each major religious group.<sup>4</sup> Elementary schools are 44 per cent Catholic, 27 per cent *Christelijke*, and 27 per cent neutral.<sup>5</sup>

At the local level more specific manifestations appear. Many consumers refuse to trade at stores maintained by members of other groups. Boy Scouts, libraries, recreation clubs, and even bee-keepers' associations are formed under church auspices. Adult and child social relationships are generally confined to members of one's own church group. A study of Sassenheim shows that 59.4 per cent of the Catholics and an almost equal proportion of Calvinists deem it sinful to form friendships with those of another faith.<sup>6</sup>

On the other hand, there are some signs of coming "religious integration" in the community. In Polderdijk, although Catholics are in the minority, the St. Nicholas of the village *Sinterklaas* festival is the parochial school's fourth-grade teacher. Village officials have no particular church affiliation. And although Catholics generally live on the eastern side of the town, the residential lines between Protestant and public-school children overlap. The above scraps of evidence, however, do not obliterate the numerous indications of religion's importance in determining social groupings.

Such division emerged with the Dutch fight for independence against Catholic Spain in the sixteenth century. After the Reformation and Holland's liberation, the Calvinists maintained control of Dutch education for two centuries. Their hold was broken in 1806, when the principle of religious liberty was established. The state prohibited religious schools until 1848, when a Catholic-Calvinist coalition gained some modification of the ban on church-supported schools. Before the turn of this century, the coalition's political weight resulted in some subsidy to church-sponsored schools. Then, in 1917, the Constitution was revised to create parity of support. This compromise has been in effect ever since.

*Religious Determinants in Education.* As a result of the principle of equal subsidy, parents are given great freedom in selecting their child's school. They generally assume that academic standards are fairly uniform except in the private, tuition-charging schools which launch children into the higher education stream more readily. For the large number of parents unable or unwilling to pay elementary and intermediate school tuition, the choice of school is still broad.

Religious affiliation outweighs all other factors when parents choose a child's school. Statistics and interviews show that, unsurprisingly, Catholics select Catholic schools, Reformed and Calvinists select *Christelijke*, and neutrals and a scattering of liberal churchgoers select public schools. In discussing reasons for their choice, churchgoing parents of elementary school children are often quick to state that schools should develop Christian character first, intellectual achievement second. They were convinced that parochial or denominational schools could succeed better in this respect.

In communities such as Polderdijk, where more than one school of the same denomination exists, most parents choose the school closest to their homes or the one assigned by the church's school board. Some wealthy

parents send their children to a more distant school if it draws children from the upper classes and prepares its pupils for the university preparatory schools (*gymnasium*, lyceum, or higher citizens' schools).

As in the United States, public, private, and parochial school teachers maintain separate organizations. Each bloc of teachers is further divided along lines of educational level. The Reformed bloc, for example, is divided into groups teaching nursery school, elementary school, advanced elementary school, university preparatory school, technical school, and so on. Professional contact between groups is largely restricted to national or local leaders seeking to solve common problems. A government committee to expand technical education or a local committee to discuss allocation of municipal funds draws its membership from public, private, and parochial school leaders. But it is unusual to find, for example, a member of a Calvinist school faculty visiting a Catholic school, attending a public school teachers' convention, or reading the magazine published by the Montessori Schools organization. Religious differences prevent a number of such other-group contacts.

Another source of division is the educational research bureau maintained by each major bloc. Supported by government funds, the Catholic, Protestant, and public bureaus each investigate, experiment, and publish books to improve their own school system. Representatives of each meet monthly to discuss common problems. Evening inservice courses are given by all; the Protestant bureau chief in The Hague pointed out to the writer that a few Catholic, public, and private school teachers attend his lectures in other localities. Representatives in each bureau note, however, that shortages of time, money, and personnel prevent them from satisfactorily affecting the school system which they serve. While no bureau is equipped to meet the needs of the schools in its region, its findings are available to all. But the writer heard scant

reference in each bureau to the research or findings of the other research bureaus. In Polderdijk no teacher mentioned research or information given by a bureau other than the one which serviced his school.

This communication barrier may be based partially on prejudice. Each research bureau representative maintained that his bureau is doing the best job of improving Dutch education methods, a conviction which might be questioned when evidence from the other bureaus is examined. Such a view reflects feelings of rivalry which stem from evangelical tendencies in each bureau's literature. A conservative Catholic position exemplifies this rivalry:

... If all children christened as Catholics also grow up as Catholics, the peaceable conquest of Europe by Catholics would become a question of time only. . . . Let us learn from our adversaries and see why they are propagating their "neutral" schools with so passionate an ardour and pertinacity. We Catholics must defeat the anti-God teaching of the State . . .<sup>7</sup>

While many Catholics oppose such evangelism, those who desire closer cooperation with other-group members are conspicuously few. The desire to maintain the "separate-but-equal" status of each bureau seems strong.

*Curriculum and religion.* The legal basis of the curriculum was established by the Act of 1920: "Public education shall be regulated by law, every person's religious views being duly respected" (Article 192, section 3). Dutch elementary schools are required to teach reading, writing, arithmetic, Dutch language, Dutch history, geography, general science, singing, drawing, physical training, and practical needlework. A foreign language may be added for those planning to take the secondary-school entrance examinations. Religious instruction is given by most neutral schools on a "released-time" basis. In denominational schools, Bible history or religious education (*godsdiens onderwijs*) heads the list of subjects posted by the classroom door. This subject would appear to be

the only point of curricular variation. In actual practice, what is taught may vary greatly because religious views are "duly respected."

The number of hours per week devoted to religious instruction often reduces the amount of other subject matter which a teacher can cover. In the Polderdijk Catholic school, for example, pupils have religious instruction three hours a week, Dutch history one hour, arithmetic seven hours, language five hours. A *Christelijke* school nearby devotes the same number of hours to all subjects save language, which requires six hours weekly. The neutral-private school sixth-graders are scheduled for an hour a week more in reading, science, and history, and one hour a week less in mathematics than their parochial school counterparts. These students have no time allotted to religious instruction, but upon parental request time is set aside. Several parochial school parents said in interview or in informal conversation that the neutral-private school children have an advantage on national examinations because their accumulated instruction has been longer. According to some ambitious upper-class parents, this "unfair advantage" or "inefficient use of school time" prevents Catholic and Reformed children from passing entrance examinations.

The subject matter during religious instruction is scarcely designed to encourage national unity. In the Protestant elementary school textbooks appear sketches of a radiant Martin Luther and a malevolent Charles V, Spain's Catholic king. The initial chapter of *Toen en Nu* (*Then and Now*), for example, describes Luther's revulsion at the alleged dishonesty and greed of the priests. No doubt is left in the reader's mind that God appointed Luther to explain His Word to the ignorant masses who were being exploited by the clergy. Charles V, seeking to prevent the Dutch from accepting Luther's teachings, is said to have inflicted cruel tortures and massacres on Protestants.<sup>8</sup>

The extent of religious instruction in Catholic schools depends somewhat on the parish priest. Much attention is given to learning Catholic history and the catechism. In a fifth-grade religious class visited by the writer, the Polderdijk priest inquired of the 35 pupils, "Why is our Faith superior to the Protestants?" The variety of answers stressed that Catholicism is Unalterable Truth, has never changed, is headed by Christ in papal form, and stems from the Holy Trinity. In his talk the priest stressed the doctrinal differences between Catholics and Protestants. Such instruction is supplemented by prayer four times daily, by religious overtones in other subjects, and by frequent visits to church. While anti-Protestant teachings may be atypical, the time devoted to religious instruction and the nature of it indicate the stress placed on this aspect of the school program.

The subject most prone to religious interpretation is history. In Protestant and Catholic schools, the lines between religious and national history seem flimsy. Many basic facts about Holland's history are subject to emotional and religious interpretation.<sup>9</sup> Was Luther dishonest or reverent? Was William of Orange a religious liberator or simply an able military leader? Were pre-Reformation reformers like Gerrit Groot lay-apostles or seekers for a new Faith? On such points Catholic and Protestant textbooks disagree. Public school textbooks offer a brief recounting of the facts with careful avoidance of "loaded" words. The nature of Holland's heritage thus is approached from divergent viewpoints, perhaps reinforcing century-old prejudices.

Other subjects, too, are sources of divergence. While the writer saw no disparity in science teaching methods, both Catholic and Protestant teachers felt science should help children understand nature's relationship to God. In "Dutch language," emphasis is placed on grammar rather than on the nation's common literary heritage. Singing and reading often widen denominational differ-

ences through the use of hymns, Bible passages, verses, and biographies of religious leaders. (Some younger teachers, however, use folk songs rather than hymns in teaching music.) A fourth-grade Catholic school teacher used place names such as St. Paul, St. Augustine, Lourdes, and Rome to integrate his geography course and religious instruction. One advantage of the parochial school, several teachers note, is the frequency of opportunities to instill religious concepts.

*Teacher attitudes toward religious divisions.* Few teachers with whom the writer talked expressed active concern about lowering barriers between religious groups. Most teachers prefer the security and understanding of like-minded colleagues to the uneasiness of working with other-group parents and teachers. For most parochial and denominational teachers, developing Christian qualities in their pupils is a foremost aim. A conservative head of a *Christelijke* elementary school stated: "We must help the child depend on God. Then God will help him find his place among men. If we succeed in this during the first six years of his schooling, the child will be able to cling to his Faith and find a place in society."

In church schools, developing a sense of personal relatedness to God outweighs the value of "cooperation" with people of varying faiths. The principal of the Polderdijk public elementary school laments the divisions in Dutch society and emphasizes that his school must be "neutral." "There is not much the public school can do about resolving these differences. After all, we have enough problems to handle." (He had, indeed, with 40 pupils in his own fourth-sixth grade combination class.) Heavy academic emphasis, unwieldy class size, inadequate facilities, and other concerns crowd out some possible consideration of methods by which pupils could gain greater contact with other religions and their adherents.<sup>10</sup>

Teachers confine questioning about reli-

gious matters to factual or dogmatic recitation. Only in private, neutral schools in The Hague and in Amsterdam did the writer observe classes in which thought-provoking questions about religious history were posed. Emphasis on facts seems to spring in part from the elementary school's goal to keep home and school teachings harmonized. The examination system, selecting the able student at each rung in the educational ladder, doubtless restricts the teacher's sense of freedom to experiment, or to depart from factual content. Tradition, too, dictates that students not be encouraged to challenge the validity of what they are taught. Most teachers reign over their classes from a high stool upon which they are seated; the physical position itself is not conducive to informal discussion. The reliability of textbook information is unquestioned, it seems, for neither elementary nor secondary school pupils observed by the writer were taught cross-referencing. Teaching methods at both the elementary and secondary level seek to encourage certainty rather than analysis.

To summarize: Dutch society, both nationally and locally, is divided into three major groups: Catholic, Protestant, and neutral. The friendly compromise between church and state maintains in many respects three educational worlds. Parents are free to select or establish a public or a state-supported, church-sponsored school. Almost three out of four choose church-sponsored schools for their children. Subject matter in parochial or denominational elementary schools is often used to strengthen belief in and understanding of the particular faith's doctrines. Teachers and pupils seldom have contact with religious and education thinking other than that emanating from their own religious group.

#### References

<sup>1</sup> These *Christelijke* schools serve all Protestant groups, principally Dutch Reformed (*Herformd*) and Calvinists (*Gereformd*).

<sup>2</sup> Private here means those schools to which parents pay fees.



<sup>3</sup> M. J. De Bosch Kemper, *De Tegenwoordige Staat in Nederland* (Utrecht: De Haan, 1950), p. 56.

<sup>4</sup> J. Dykstra, "Holland's Religious Segmentation," *Christian Century*, LVII, October 19, 1955, p. 1207.

<sup>5</sup> Central Bureau of Statistics "The Development of Education in The Netherlands, 1950" (Utrecht: De Haan, 1951), p. 32.

<sup>6</sup> Ivan Gadourek, *A Dutch Community* (Leiden: Stenfort Kroese, 1956), pp. 112-113.

<sup>7</sup> The Roman Catholic Bureau for Education and Guidance, *The Netherlands Solution of the Education Question* (The Hague, 1940), pp. 6 and 7.

<sup>8</sup> W. G. vander Hulst and R. Huizenga, *Toen en Nu* (*Then and Now*) (Groningen, 1951), pp. 16-18.

<sup>9</sup> See Gadourek, *op. cit.*, appendix E, for some comparison of history texts.

<sup>10</sup> Notable exceptions include the open-air schools for recuperating children, Kees Boeke's famed *Werkplaats*, several Montessori and Dalton schools, and a few experimental schools controlled by municipalities. The publications of the New Education Fellowship in Holland (*Vereniging*) and the annual publications of the *Wekcomité Voor Opvoeding tot Democratie* offer descriptions of such exceptional schools.

## THE USE OF MOTION PICTURES IN COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

ANTHONY SCARANGELLO

Undoubtedly the best way to study a foreign country and its educational system is to make a personal tour of the area—to work, to use a sociological term, in the field. Desirable as this method may be, it is seldom feasible. The student of comparative education uses whatever few personal contacts he has, and his periodicals and books. If he stops here, however, he is neglecting one of the important tools in the study of other peoples, cultures, and schools—the motion picture film.

*The Educational Film Guide*, a volume which catalogues thousands of 16mm films, is the best single source of information on available films. Published by the H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Avenue, New York 52, New York, it offers a brief résumé of the film's content as well as information relative to sources from which the film may be obtained.

In view of the fact that half the world's 2,700,000,000 people are illiterate, the film *Each One Teach One*, which explains Frank Laubach's program of combating world illiteracy, provides an important source of information for any course. Produced in 1954 in color, the film relates the poignant story of how a beggar in India, through an understanding of the written word, is made a fuller person.

Also of interest is the film *How Do American Schools Compare with Yours?*, produced in 1957. The methods and objectives of education in four countries—Australia, Guatemala, Norway and Turkey—are covered.

In addition to these films of general interest, there are many others available to the comparative educator who is interested in broadening his students' understanding of specific areas of the world.



Easily attainable are films which focus on European schools. *Danish Children Build a Greek School* sheds light on the area of international understanding and how it may be achieved by cooperation on all levels. In this brief ten-minute film we see a school born in the Greek village of Agnandero. What is unusual about this United Nations film is the fact that the Greek school was paid for by contributions from Danish school children and was actually built by Danish students.

In Sweden's *Future Artisans* we watch as Swedish boys and girls engage in varied creative activities. In this film, produced in color, elementary school children employ their skills to make useful and beautiful articles.

Probably more films are available on the subject of English education than on the education of other European countries. *Children's Charter*, available from the British Information Service, provides an explanation of the important English Education Act of 1944. The film *Three A's*, available from the same source, explains the English educators' concern with age, ability, and aptitude. Here we note the English teachers' efforts to see that each child receives the education best suited to his individual needs, a departure from the all too prevalent concern to separate the "top cream from the milk," mainly on the basis of ability, which prevailed until recent times.

The British Information Service handles several other films on English education, including *Cambridge*, a film tour of one of the world's oldest universities, and *Scottish Universities*, a film covering centuries of history of the venerable universities of St. Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and Edinburgh.

*The Schoolmaster*, a twenty-minute film in black and white, describes life in a typical rural British school. The viewer sees how a young Scottish schoolmaster helps his pupils face their problems.

There are very few films available for other countries of Western Europe with the exception of France. Here we have the classic *Passion for Life*, in French with English subtitles, describing life in a French village school. The film, prepared in 1952 and distributed by Brandon, runs for one hour and 25 minutes. Another French film, *Lycée sur La Colline*, is distributed by the Society for French-American Services and supplies a view of life in a French secondary school. The audio is in French but the Society supplies a mimeographed English version with it. The film runs for 25 minutes.

The latest film on Soviet education is *School Days*, printed in color by the University of Michigan Audio-Visual Department from a copy of an official Soviet film brought by the Comparative Education Society from the USSR in 1958. The film runs one hour and 15 minutes and shows various phases of school life. Another film, *Children of Russia*, is distributed by International Film Foundation and runs for 13 minutes. Although prepared in 1946, this film shows Soviet schools as of 1936.

Of the many general films on Soviet life, *Russian Life Today*, by Bailey Films in Hollywood, runs for 21 minutes and shows current Soviet life in color, with a good emphasis on schools. More closely focused on Soviet education is an interesting film, *Happy Childhood*, a color film of fairly recent vintage (1955), which provides glimpses of children in the U.S.S.R. as they progress in educational stages from nursery schools into eventual adulthood. This film runs almost 50 minutes.

Although dated, the film *Soviet School Child*, made during World War II, remains of interest to the student of comparative education. The camera follows the Soviet child from the mother's breast into the worlds of the nursery, the primary school, and the secondary school. We see activities of youth in and out of school. Both the ultra-patriotism and the propaganda detract from the film's full value.

As world attention focuses more and more on an emerging Asia, it is well to note that comparative educators, too, are turning their attention in that direction. Available from the Turkish Information Office, *Education in Turkey* provides us with views of education in that country and indicates how, since Kemal Ataturk, education has been used as a tool in the modernization of Turkey. Produced in 1955 by Albert N. Harburger, this film takes the viewer from nursery school to college in modern Turkey, a nation whose educational system has done more to modernize the country than has been the case in any other country, with the possible exceptions of Japan and Russia.

*Public Schools of India*, available from the India Information Service, is a 10-minute film made not too many years ago (1953). *New India's People*, produced in the same year for television showing, describes some of the different peoples that make up the complex nation that is modern India—the maharajahs, the untouchables, the Brahmins, and the Parsees—and the part they are playing in determining the future of this vast subcontinent. The film makes few references to education.

In 1954 the Australian News and Information Service made available *School's Out*, a 20-minute film which illustrates the activities of the school children of Australia during vacation time.

*New Horizons*, produced in 1954, is a forty-minute color film which shows missionary activities in what was then Indo-China. There is a good treatment of the problem of illiteracy here, along with trips into the interior and a visit to the leprosarium near Banmethuot, South Viet Nam.

Also in color, *Living Future* is perhaps the best single film available on the various phases of Hadassah's vocational program in Israel.

The educational problems of Asia are much the same as those of Latin America. In 1953 the United Nations Film Division

produced *Land and Its People*, a description of the Patzcuaro district, the home of the Tarascan Indians in Mexico. In this interesting film we have a combination of the history, geography, and culture of rural Mexican people.

Designed as a sequel to *Land and Its People*, *New Horizons* (not to be confused with the film on Indo-China mentioned above) makes clear the need for the UNESCO Patzcuaro Project under which teachers from 20 Latin-American countries trained to combat illiteracy. In cooperation with the World Health Organization, the Food and Agricultural Organization, and the International Labor Organization, students do their field work under the aegis of UNESCO, creating in the people a desire for knowledge and a conviction that a better life for their communities may be created through their own individual and cooperative efforts. (Both of these films may be borrowed free of charge from the United Nations Film Division.)

The educational opportunities of Mexico are shown in *Education and Health*, a brief film which is available through the Mexican Ministry of Education. The camera focuses on both rural and urban schools on all levels, ranging from elementary through the University of Mexico. The importance of health in education is stressed, and the health care provided to students is shown in visits to hospitals and clinics established in both rural and urban areas.

*Schools of Mexico*, a Coronet film, is perhaps the best single short film (eleven minutes) presently available on an educational system. In this film we see adobe schools at the end of cowpaths on the one hand, and the modern schools and universities of Mexico City on the other. Non-academic as well as academic aspects of education are stressed, including the acquisition of skills in washing, cooking, planting, and plowing, along with instruction in dancing and games.

*Schools to the South*, which examines

educational trends in Latin America, is valuable though dated.

An interesting film in the area of vocational education, *School for Farmers*, available in color as well as black and white versions, shows modern farm methods in Chile. The story revolves around Filipe, a teen-age lad, who knows only his father's antiquated methods of farming. At the agricultural school operated by the Maryknoll Fathers he receives up-to-date training in horticulture, bookkeeping, animal husbandry, carpentry, and metal work.

Narrated by Julian S. Huxley, *Achimota*, one of the few films on African education available at this time, takes the viewer on a visit to an educational center in British West Africa. Here English and African teachers train students for work among their own people. Another, similar film, *Makerere*, deals with Makerere College in East Africa.

*United States Responsibilities to the Rest of the World*, a kinescope produced by WOI-TV, is an eloquent plea for additional intelligent U. S. assistance to under-

developed areas in the world. The film describes the present state of technological development in Asiatic and other less fortunate nations, and makes concrete suggestions for helping these areas to advance.

No effort has been made here to present a comprehensive list of available films. Most of the films covered in this article are listed in the H. W. Wilson Company's *Educational Film Guide*. Many of the larger universities maintain excellent film libraries. A worth-while directory, arranged by city and state, is available from the U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. Additional information may be obtained from the National Audio-Visual Association, 2540 Eastwood Avenue, Evanston, Illinois.

It is to be hoped that film makers will become increasingly aware of the motion picture's value in making real for students those areas of the world which they would find it impossible to visit otherwise, and that teachers will make greater use of the film as an educative tool in their classrooms.

## EDUCATION OF AFRICANS IN SOUTHERN RHODESIA

FRANKLIN PARKER

This article attempts to summarize 60 years of educational effort for African Negroes in Southern Rhodesia, the dominant political territory of the new (1953) multiracial Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. British rule in this south central African federation began in 1890. Government support of mission schools for Africans began at the turn of this century.

Two men helped secure British influence over central Africa. Missionary David Liv-

ingstone, wanting to destroy the Arab slave trade, crossed, mapped, and publicized central Africa between 1850 and 1870, pleading for commerce to westernize and missions to christianize its people. Imperialist Cecil John Rhodes aroused Britain to expand north from the Union of South Africa to ward off German, Belgian, Portuguese, and Boer encroachments on central Africa.

Of the two major tribal peoples who lived in what later became Southern Rhodesia, the

weaker Mashona to the east and north tended cattle and farmed. They were constantly attacked by their overlords, the fierce Matabele, offshoot of the Zulus who had fled north before the advancing Boers in South Africa about 1836. Lobengula, Matabele chief, knew he could not win against the white men who plagued him for mining rights, and agreed to give Rhodes permission to "dig holes in the ground." But Rhodes sent pioneers for permanent settlement in 1890.

The disillusioned Lobengula could not hold back his angered warriors who raided isolated farms. This rebellion of 1893 was crushed with Maxim machine guns. Herded into inadequate reserves, made to pay taxes, and forced into unaccustomed labor in mines and on farms, the only half-defeated Matabele, along with the Mashona, rebelled again in 1896. Again they were quickly beaten but did win some concessions. The whites were the masters and intended to stay.<sup>1</sup>

Rhodes' British South Africa Company, under royal charter, ruled over the white settlers and the native peoples until 1923. In that year Southern Rhodesia, whose white government was politically far advanced, became a self-governing territory, while Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland came under British Colonial Office rule. Common history, long cooperation on essential services, and the need for economic strength led to federation of these territories in 1953.

The present Federal population consists of 7,500,000 Africans, 300,000 whites, and 35,000 Asians and Coloreds (mixed breeds). Each territory contains about one-third of this total population. Southern Rhodesia, a tobacco-growing territory about the size of California, has a black-to-white ratio of 12 to one. Northern Rhodesia, a rich copper-producing territory about the size of Texas, has a black-to-white ratio of 28 to one. Nyasaland, an economically poor tea-growing territory about the size of New York State, serves as a labor reservoir for cen-

tral Africa and has a ratio of 350 to one.

The racial imbalance has influenced the African majorities in Nyasaland and parts of Northern Rhodesia to want to remain under Colonial Office protection, which they feel holds some hope for their eventual independence. These Africans resist Federation because they feel it imposes on them Southern Rhodesia's more rigorous segregation policies. It was on this issue that violence erupted early in 1959. The Federation is today tenuously balanced between the inflexible segregated Union of South Africa and the rising wave of black nationalism sweeping Africa.

Christian missionaries who preceded the pioneers in 1890 had opened a few schools for Africans. Rhodes, who said that one missionary was worth fifty policemen in his influence for good upon the Africans, gave 10 mission societies 325,730 acres for mission stations before 1900.<sup>2</sup> The missions began African education in Southern Rhodesia and today still administer more than 95 per cent of the schools under government control and subsidy.

The first Education Ordinance, December 15, 1899, created an Education Department and an inspectorate and set grant-earning conditions for separate white, Asian, Colored, and African schools. This segregated policy, still in effect, has been modified as follows. White, Asian, and Colored education became a federal responsibility in 1953; African education remained the responsibility of each territory. The multi-racial University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland opened in 1957 with more equal terms for all races.

The educational beginnings were small. Three mission schools enrolled 265 pupils and earned \$638.40 in grants in 1901. The eight ordinances passed up to 1927 made higher grants contingent on industrial and agricultural training, discipline, and cleanliness. Africans at first were understandably apathetic about schools as they were about white motives and economic incentives.

The seed of western schooling, however, soon took hold. An African Affairs Inquiry Commission in 1910-1911 noted 14,652 pupils in 213 schools, 115 government aided and 98 unaided.<sup>3</sup> This commission recommended a central teacher-training school along industrial lines, but this school was not opened until 1920. The commission approved the continuance of religious instruction to instill morals and industrial work to make better workmen. Academic work was hesitatingly permitted. Many whites, against educating the African at all, believed him more useful and less dangerous without schooling.<sup>4</sup> But the more advanced African wanted academic education because he saw that whites placed the highest value upon it.

In 1918 a native commissioner, H. S. Keigwin, proposed to develop village industries (baskets, chairs, pottery, tile, and other crafts) and to train African demonstrators for this purpose in a central training school. He received government sponsorship and funds in 1920, was appointed Director of Native Development, and secured the approval of the Missionary Conference which had, since 1906, become the leading advisory body to the government on African education.<sup>5</sup> The first government school was opened in 1920 with 37 pupils, two white and two African teachers, and a second school was opened the next year. But the original plan was found to be impractical and these became industrial schools training African boys in their fifth, sixth, and seventh school years as simple craftsmen and as agricultural and health demonstrators for work in the African reserves.

This venture, premature and expensive, marked the government's first direct entry into African education. The missions justifiably pointed out that the two government schools had received from 1920 to 1922 \$35,700, or about \$190.40 per pupil, while their 1,002 mission schools had received during the same two years \$77,821.24 or about \$1.38 per pupil, and for essentially the same kind of education. But the government

continued to support its two industrial schools, partly to press the missions into keeping African education industrially and agriculturally oriented, partly to show the Africans that the white government was doing something for them.

Government grants, on a capitation basis, rewarded enrollment rather than educational quality and this led to an expansion in village schools under many untrained and ill-supervised African teachers. When Southern Rhodesia became self-governing in 1923, there were 69,991 African children in 1,089 mission schools, most of them inefficient village day schools taught by untrained teachers. The cost to the government was low, \$1.38 per head, but so was the educational level. An important commission in 1925 thoroughly examined African education and among its 46 recommendations proposed to change grants from capitation basis to qualification of teachers and to establish a separate department of native education.<sup>6</sup> White sentiments, hostile to educating the Africans for anything but non-competitive laborers in white enterprises, were soon expressed: "If the native here is educated today to fulfill exactly the same social function as the white child, we are going to be in difficulties."<sup>7</sup> And again:

We do not intend to hand over this country to the native population or to admit them to the same society or political position as we occupy ourselves, but we do wish to do them justice and to enable them to better their position in every way; but we should make no pretense of educating them in exactly the same way as we do Europeans.<sup>8</sup>

A separate Department of Native Education was created in 1927. Its first director, Harold Jowitt, an educator with African education experience in the Union of South Africa, took over a school system of 99,535 pupils in 1,534 grant-earning schools operated by 16 mission societies, 1,400 of these being village day schools, and many of them grossly inefficient and mainly staffed by untrained teachers.



Jowitt came to Southern Rhodesia imbued with the idea that education should uplift village life. He believed in the new emphasis discussed at the 1926 conference of missions at Le Zoute, Belgium, to help the African live effectively in his environment.<sup>9</sup> He concurred with statements of the Colonial Office Advisory Board on African education about conserving the healthy aspects of African social life and building up capable and public-spirited African leaders.<sup>10</sup>

Under the Native Development Act of 1929<sup>11</sup> Jowitt energetically began a massive community development program, trained master teachers,<sup>12</sup> closed inefficient village schools, and encouraged the unification of vernacular dialects by mission linguists. But teacher training, despite emergency short courses and an increase of teacher-training schools from nine in 1929 to 12 in 1933, did not materially improve.<sup>13</sup> The late depression years marked a turning toward a more restrictive government policy on African development and Jowitt's resignation was forced in 1934 by mounting criticism from conservative officials.<sup>14</sup>

The African population increased rapidly after 1935. White town growth attracted more and more African workers from the reserves who brought their families to live permanently in adjoining African townships. Urban education became a pressing need which missions first met by submerging denominational differences to form united mission urban schools. By 1945 the government appropriated sufficient funds to relieve missions of this burden. Missions have been responsible for rural school work under government control and subsidy while the government has built, supported, and staffed its own urban schools but has never been able to meet the full urban need. Missions began secondary education in 1939 and the Government opened its first secondary school in 1946.<sup>15</sup>

Lack of teacher training has been the greatest weakness of African education. Ninety-four per cent of the teachers were

untrained in 1934, 70 per cent in 1950, and 50 per cent in 1958.<sup>16</sup> The average monthly salary of \$9.52 for trained male African teachers in 1934 rose to \$14.11 in 1945, when a unified salary scale went into effect, and to \$15.40 in 1952.<sup>17</sup> A government teacher-training school, long overdue, was opened in 1956.<sup>18</sup>

Policy has been made by an annual meeting of representatives from the missions and the Native Education Department since 1936, and a standing committee of this conference has met more frequently since 1949.<sup>19</sup> Mounting African pressures after 1942 for more educational facilities<sup>20</sup> precipitated another government inquiry into African education in 1951. One hundred and forty recommendations resulted from this inquiry and led in 1956 to an important five-year educational plan whose provisions are now coming into effect. By 1960 Southern Rhodesia hopes to produce enough trained teachers to provide five years of education for all children, double the number of places in the upper elementary grades, expand secondary-school places, and open more technical, vocational, and commercial school opportunities.<sup>21</sup> Finally, an African Education Bill which passed the 1959 legislature provides for a unified teaching service with conditions to enhance that profession.<sup>22</sup>

After 60 years the untrained half of 12,000 African teachers have eight or fewer years of education, while trained teachers rarely have more than 12 to 14 years' schooling. Poor financial support, few training schools, poor pay and general conditions of service, discourage prospective teachers. Africans of high calibre, like their white models, have lacked the spirit of altruism to teach under such conditions. Despite the promise of the new African Education Act the need remains for superior, educated Africans to use their talents to teach their own youth.

One-eighth of Southern Rhodesia's total revenue in 1959 was set aside to educate 480,000 African children in about 3,000

schools.<sup>23</sup> Future growth will be in secondary, commercial, teacher-training, and technical schools, all more expensive to run than elementary schools. The cost of African education, which now is borne in the main by the numerically small white population, will likely become a strain in the near future. Africans, who now pay \$5.60 annual tax per adult male from their generally low wages, do have a prospering minority to whom a graduated income tax may be acceptable for their children's education. Anticipated industrialization from the Kariba hydroelectric dam, soon to be completed, may further enable Africans to pay a larger share of the cost of their schools.

Missions, which have known the African best and helped him most, are likely to face a decline in influence. Staff and money shortages are lesser problems than loss of African confidence. Denominational rivalries weaken Christian allegiance. Mission discipline of behavior is resented by many Africans. Unfortunately many nationalistic Africans who were mission trained feel bitterly toward missions, identifying them with the restrictive white government.

Some mission and government differences are not easily resolved. Missions began African education and still do a large part of the government's job in educating African schoolchildren. They feel keenly about lack of government financial support and resent critical inspectors who demand high standards when personnel and money are short. Some white missionary leaders see their future course as the building up of an indigenous African church strong enough to go on without them. But the government will not trust the Africans to run their own schools, fearing that unscrupulous African leaders might use the schools for anti-white purposes, as happened in Kenya.

Should mission-school influence decline industrialization increase, and urban school needs rise, only Africans will be available in sufficient numbers to meet personnel

needs. Should Africans be admitted to the inspectorate and administrative staff, an ultimate shift of educational control to African hands may result.

Technical education is at present badly needed for Africans. But this delicate problem concerns the future of white workers whose influential trade unions have kept Africans from skilled trades. This firm opposition may yield if the Kariba dam brings on the anticipated industrial boom. To delay preparing skilled Africans for industry until industry begins to demand such help will surely mean a greater loss than to expand technical education facilities now. But African uprisings in 1959 have created an unfavorable atmosphere for such future planning.

In summary, the period from 1899 to 1927 may be termed "the path of salvation," when Christianity, industrial education bias, and benevolent paternalism were pressures used to shake the indifferent African out of his apathy. The period from 1927 to 1935 may be called "adaptation to environment," an experiment that failed as advancing Africans became stirred by western incentives and gradually embraced academic education as a path to progress. After 1935 "the awakened African" accepted western schooling and indeed demanded it with passion while he outwardly showed a growing antipathy to white dominance and missionary guidance.

Southern Rhodesia is distinguished by a high percentage of African children in school (85 per cent). But quality of instruction is as necessary in the lower grades as are larger enrollments in the higher grades. If these advances could be matched by a real expansion and improvement of teacher training, secondary schools, and technical schools, African education in Southern Rhodesia would be well in advance of that of any other territory in sub-Saharan Africa.

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## INDOCTRINATION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH IN THE SOVIET PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTE

ALBERT W. VOGEL

A great deal has been said about the indoctrination of students in the Soviet schools, but perhaps too little has been said about the people who are expected to do some part of the indoctrinating, the teachers. How deeply teachers are involved in this indoctrination as thinking individuals will always remain a matter for discussion, and there are many kinds of indoctrination. Most students of Soviet education are aware of the overt kind of indoctrination, the *obshchestvovedenie*, that was so popular prior to 1936; but another, more subtle kind of indoctrination springs

directly from the attitudes of teachers, perhaps unconsciously, and is reflected in their treatment of academic subject matter, not taught as subject matter itself.

In a free, competitive society where neither the schools nor the texts used in the schools are controlled by governmental agencies, indoctrination in any planned or systematic way is impossible. But the Soviet Union, with its fifteen ministries of education and state publishing houses under an overall control of the Party, is in a position to exercise a great deal of control not only over the schools, but also over the texts

and materials used in the schools. Following this line of reasoning, one can readily see how teachers of English would present a special problem for the agencies concerned. Teachers often develop a high enthusiasm for their particular subject, and they often pass this enthusiasm on to their students. Taken by itself enthusiasm is no real danger, but if enthusiasm develops into a too deep respect for a foreign country, and that foreign country happens to be philosophically and politically at odds with the students' own country, then there is a danger—at least from the official point of view of the government. What would happen if Soviet students were taught to see beyond the surface social problems in *Huckleberry Finn* to the individualistic doctrines of Mark Twain? What would happen if Soviet students were to see Walt Whitman's democratic concepts in their proper idealistic setting, refuting dialectic materialism? Or again, what would happen if Soviet students were to read Thomas Wolfe as American students read him, with his ideas about intellectual revolt against culture and family. Granted that there are people in the Soviet Union who are able to read American and British literature on these terms, it is unlikely that such "objectivism" would be permitted in the secondary schools.

Hence the special control of foreign language textbooks. The English language text books published by *Gosudarstvennoe uchebno-pedagogicheskoe izdatel'stvo* of the RSFSR Ministry of Education are carefully written to provide English language teachers with an orthodox background out of which they can teach the literature anthologized in the school texts. The book which will be set as example here, the second course text, I. R. Galetserin, et al., *Uchebnik angliiskogo*, 1958, used in the Pedagogical Institute, is a well-made work of some 355 pages, divided into 26 lessons, an alphabetical vocabulary, a list of geographical names, and a list of proper names. Except for the title, the introduction, and some idioms,

the book is written in English. To the American foreign-language student used to upper-grade texts containing only occasional footnotes pointing out unusual usages and unfamiliar idioms, *Uchebnik angliiskogo* seems rather thorough. The literary excerpts in each lesson are short, one and one half to two pages, but the commentary that follows each lesson is painstaking in its examination of idiom and usage. The intent is not to teach English as it should be used, but as it is used.

Each of the 26 lessons in *Uchebnik angliiskogo* seems to have been selected because it demonstrates the inferiority of the Western democracies, or the superiority of the Soviet Union. In the following excerpt from Lesson I, two pedagogical institute students are traveling back to Moscow and school; their conversation turns on the following subjects:

Olga read: "This year many graduates from educational institutions, engineers, doctors, lawyers, teachers, as well as many other specialists, have joined the ranks of the unemployed. The magazine *United States News and World Report* recently stated that the graduates had little hope of finding work in their special fields."

They continue:

To "help" the graduates of colleges and other institutions the Ministry of Labour has issued a special booklet which tells the young people [in America] how to find jobs. The booklet recommends that . . . [professional people] should offer their services as salesmen, saleswomen, nurses, barbers, house-painters and so on.

To the American reader the above passages are laughable; whether the *U. S. News and World Report* ever made such a statement is beside the point (they may have made it in 1929), but doctors and engineers simply are not looking for jobs in 1958. And whether the Ministry of Labour (Department of Labor?) ever issued a booklet telling young people how to find jobs as "barbers, house painters and so on" is again beside the point, although to have done so would have been in keeping with communis-

tic, not American, notions of useful labor. On second thought, the passages may refer to Great Britain, but there is no way to tell from the text.

Later a passenger says: "How different it is with our graduates," and invites the girls to teach in his town after they graduate. The selection betrays itself in the last bits of dialogue. Another passenger asks the girls to come to teach in her town "Stalinsk, one of the new cities in Siberia," because "we always need teachers." This is a thinly veiled suggestion to teachers that they take jobs in the new industrial areas away from the cosmopolitan large cities.

Lessons four and five deal with the Negro question in America. "Because She Was A Negro Woman," by M. Tarunts, describes a scene on a train traveling through the American South. A Negro woman on her way to visit her soldier husband is abused by an American Army officer and put off the train. An Armenian who tries to help her is similarly treated after much discussion by the backward Americans over the location of Armenia: "Are the Armenians Catholics or Protestants?" asks an American soldier. Another asks. "Is your country far from New Orleans?" The word *nigger* is liberally sprinkled throughout the lesson, and explained in the notes as "a contemptuous name for Negroes, used by American racists." Lesson five has a passage from *Soviet Women*, No. 1, 1952, written by Doris Millard, presumably an American Southern Negro, who describes the murder of her father and mother by the Ku Klux Klan in Georgia.

Lessons six and seven, "A Common Patient," by Belotserkovsky, is about an American workman who gets a splinter in his eye on the job. He goes to his own doctor (fee, one dollar), but learns that only a specialist, a "professor," can help him. Unfortunately, the professor charges 25 dollars, an amount of money no American workman could hope to save. After first pointing out that "If I do one of you a

favour, I'll have a dozen, a hundred of you crowding my office tomorrow. . . . I don't treat common people like you," the professor removes the splinter, thus saving the patient's life. The operation is performed in the professor's office without anesthetic and without the slightest regard for cleanliness. This picture of the American medical profession is contrasted with the career of Academician Valdimir Filatov who has saved thousands of people from blindness, and who works in an "excellently equipped clinic placed at the scientist's disposal by the Soviet Government." Doctor Filatov also takes an active part in public life. In addition to being honored as a scientist, he is a member of the Supreme Soviet of the Ukrainian S.S.R.

Poetry too is selected to point the Soviet moral. "The Song of the Wage-Slave," by Ernest Jones, with such lines as "Oh, that man he is so poor," or, "The Land it is the Landlord's," are singled out for analysis as examples of emotional colloquial speech. The authors also select such socially orientated works as Shelley's, "The Song to the Men of England" (line: "For the lords who lay ye low"); "The Song of the Shirt," by Thomas Hood (line: "And what are its wages? A bed of straw"); and "Sons of Poverty" by William Jones. All are nineteenth-century protests against industrialism and its abuses.

To supply a contrast, the authors have selected Frank J. Hardy's twentieth century *Journey into the Future*. The following excerpts are from that book:

Now we were on our way to the Soviet Union. We were going to see for ourselves the first Socialist State, the first country in which the working class, in alliance with the farmers, had taken power. . . . In the USSR we went where we wished to go. . . .

At the Red October Steel Works in Stalingrad Hardy meets workers. One of them—"an ordinary steelworker"—has been given the highest government decorations. Hardy muses:



Imagine a steelworker receiving a knighthood in the honours list in the British Empire or anywhere else in the Capitalist World.

The following advantages to be found in the Soviet Union are also pointed out:

There has never been, nor can there be, any unemployment in the USSR because of its planned Socialist economy.

The Soviet worker, as well as receiving holidays on full pay, goes to the best holiday resorts free or for a nominal fee.

His wages rise steadily as output increases.

Women workers enjoy equal pay and rights with men.

All Soviet medical service is free from the cradle to the grave.

Rent in the Soviet Union is the lowest in the world.

The contrast the authors are trying to point up should be obvious by this time. Additional selections such as Mike Quin's "Oscar Wants to Know," *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, and Samuel Butler's *The Way of all Flesh*, are juxtaposed somewhat anachronistically to an essay describing how a Russian discovered the Antarctic Continent, and a story about Soviet sailors who refused to lower their flag to attacking Germans during World War Two. Needless to say the book also contains passages by such proletarian standbys as Howard Fast, *The Last Frontier*; Jack London, *The Iron Heel*; and Michael Gold, *Indian Massacre*.

To the American reader, the selections in *Uchebnik angliiskogo* seem obviously biased, but whether they seem obvious to a Moscow pedagogical student must remain a matter of conjecture. Surely there are to be found in the Soviet Union students at either extreme—some accepting without question the picture presented by the authors, and some who would reject it as propaganda. For propaganda it is: none of the selections contain an out-and-out falsehood. There is a Negro problem in the American South; Americans have been out of work, and we do not have a planned economy; there are Americans who do not know where Ar-

menia is; and Academician Vladimir Filstov is a great scientist. The selections of American and British literature in the book are genuine, but they have been chopped free of their historical context so as to point a moral: the Soviet Union is superior, freer, and more concerned about the well-being of the common man than are the Western Democracies.

Another thing that strikes the American reader is that there is no critical commentary anywhere in the book. The moral is pointed, but never stated. The question "why did so-and-so do such-and-such," so familiar in the American literary text book is never asked. But as teachers of English know, students have an annoying habit of asking critical and interpretative questions about the material they are reading: literature is not written only to illustrate grammatical or colloquial idiosyncrasies. To meet this problem the authors of *Uchebnik angliiskogo* have provided the graduating pedagogical institute student with a fund of illustrations, citations, and examples to support the Soviet moral as it is, in turn, made in the school English-language text books. Writing in the *Modern Language Journal* in 1957, Fan Parker stated that she could find in the text book given her by the principal of School No. 1, in Sokolnicheskaya Street, in Moscow, only two selections that were propagandistic in intent. However true this may have been of Miss Parker's book, this writer's own copies of Belova and Todd, and Nelidova and Todd, ninth- and tenth-grade English texts, are made up almost entirely of selections which, interpreted by a teacher trained as has been demonstrated above, could not fail to testify to the superiority of the Soviet Union and the inferiority of England and America. More than that, the selections in the secondary school texts from H. G. Wells, Jack London, O. Henry, Theodore Dreiser, and Howard Fast dovetail rather nicely in terms of their ideological content with the selections in *Uchebnik angliiskogo*.

# ADULT EDUCATION: A COMPARATIVE STUDY BY ROBERT PEERS<sup>1</sup>

JOHN WALKER POWELL

No one can study the development of adult education . . . without realizing that there is, innate in the people, both the desire and the capacity to know, to appreciate, and to practise those qualities of mind and spirit which belong to the good life in society, hindered in their expression by unfavourable environments, by false national ideals and by lack of vision on the part of those who wield authority in the modern state.

This book, by a man who has been both a product of and a leader in the British movement for "a union of scholars and ordinary working class people," is primarily an extended historical explication of that statement with which the work concludes. Written over a period of several busy years, the book actually falls into two uneasily related patterns: an historical account of the growth and organization of the British system of university-oriented liberal education for adults; and a rather hasty comparison and analysis of the adult education patterns in other modern states. Along the way are Dr. Peers' own assertions of the meaning and purpose of liberal adult education, assertions which show the strong influence of the towering mind and spirit of R. H. Tawney.

The perspective of history, almost wholly neglected among adult educators in the United States, casts a light both humbling and exciting upon our own contemporary endeavors and problems. To see the evolution of adult learning in England from its beginning in the radical movements for religious reform through those of social re-

form—workingmen's improvement, manhood suffrage, universal popular education, the cooperative movement, and the emergence of Labor as a major political force—is to capture again the sense of common social purpose, and to make vital again the question whether adult education is to be a series of temporary stop-gaps or "a permanent need of an educated democracy."

Both the contrasts and the similarities with American experience are instructive. In the class structure of Britain it was inevitable that the aristocracy should include some champions of extending the means of intelligence to the commoners, and that the latter should see in the University the major symbol of aristocratic opportunity. Thus it was the universities that were at once the target and the major source for workers' education. But recent decades have shown significant departures from that origin: the three-year tutorial classes, equivalent to the poor man's university, began to recede without ever having reached their first thousand a year, and are increasingly being displaced by short-course evening units of from six to 20 weeks and brief residential institutes. The manual worker has been displaced in adult education classes by the white-collar and subprofessional employee and the housewife, most of them with secondary education or more. This precisely parallels the situation both here and on the Continent, where today's problem is not so much how to increase the attendance of "workers" as how to attract it at all. The increase in skilled-worker and brain-worker population is reflected everywhere in the increase in technical and skill courses; and the adult educator in England, in Austria, or in Des Moines, Iowa, is left wondering, with Peers, how to succeed "in attracting for

<sup>1</sup> *Adult Education: A Comparative Study*, by Robert Peers. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1958. 357 pp.; bibliography, index, 36 tables. 35s.

more elementary courses those who need adult education most."

The book falls into six Parts: two on English experience, two on adult learning and teaching, one on adult education in other countries—the British Commonwealth, Scandinavian countries, the U.S.A., Germany and the underdeveloped areas; and the obligatory final chapter on The Future. The comparative chapters are uneven: sketchy in description and analysis, but often vigorous in Peers' own comments. His contrasts between the British emphasis on liberal education and the American on vocational, between the English Workers Educational Association as a "demand-forming" body and the customary lack of any consumer representation in the U.S.A. planning and coordinating bodies, between the dominating role of university standards in Britain and the American haphazard lack of any at all—these and other points are worthy of thought. His somewhat amused analysis of Group Dynamics as an American attempt to make a special know-how out of what most bright people knew all along, as well as his serious warning that the substitution of "gimmicks" for knowledge cannot create effective leadership, will hopefully refresh

that controversy. And his genuine devotion to "the primary purpose of adult education in a democracy—the training of a body of citizens in knowledge, in ability to think for themselves, and in the capacity for service in the society to which they belong"—makes his a truly international voice, meriting the heartfelt attention of American educators.

One's immediate comparison for this volume is of course C. Hartley Grattan's *In Quest of Knowledge* (especially with its new companion-piece, the paperback source-book, *American Ideas about Adult Education*.)<sup>2</sup> The American student will find these a better-balanced diet for his purposes, with a little more interpretation and a little less organizational detail. But he will, by the same token, find in Peers the healthy challenge of ideas and experience derived from a culture recognizably akin, but in profound and instructive contrast, to his own.

<sup>2</sup> Grattan, C. Hartley, *In Quest of Knowledge*. New York: Association Press, 1955; *American Ideas about Adult Education*, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959.

## CONSTITUTION OF THE COMPARATIVE EDUCATION SOCIETY

GERALD H. READ

For several years the Constitution of the Comparative Education Society has been in the making and the revisions have been many. The original draft, a work of the Board of Directors, was submitted to the critical review of the members present at the February, 1958 annual meeting of the Society. The document was then given to a committee chaired by Dr. Kathryn G.

Heath of the International Relations Division of the U. S. Office of Education. The Board of Directors in its February, 1959 meeting approved the Constitution in its present form and submitted it to the members present at the annual meeting of the Society in Chicago on February 12, 1959. The secretary was directed to mail copies of the Constitution to each member with

a ballot to register his acceptance or rejection. Of the 187 ballots returned, there were three which registered a negative vote. On June 1, 1959, the secretary declared the Constitution officially ratified by the membership. The text of the document follows:

#### ARTICLE I. THE SOCIETY

*Name.* Section 1. The name of this organization shall be the Comparative Education Society.

*Purpose.* Section 2. The purpose of the Society shall be to encourage and promote comparative and international studies in education by:

- a. Improving the teaching of comparative education in institutions of higher learning.
- b. Stimulating research.
- c. Facilitating the publication and distribution of comparative studies in education.
- d. Interesting professors of other disciplines and leaders of area programs in the comparative and international dimensions of their work.
- e. Arranging inter-visitation by educators and on-the-spot studies of school systems throughout the world.
- f. Cooperating with those in other disciplines and in area programs in interpreting educational developments in their broad cultural context.

*Membership.* Section 3. The following individuals shall be eligible to apply for membership in the Society.

- a. Teachers and students of comparative education and related foundation subjects in education.
- b. Those doing work in or related to comparative education in agencies and organizations other than institutions of higher learning, and
- c. Those in professional education or other disciplines who have an interest in comparative education and its promotion.

#### ARTICLE II. OFFICERS, BOARD OF DIRECTORS, EXECUTIVE COUNCIL, AND COMMITTEES

*Management.* Section 1. The members shall establish the policy and, with the assistance of the following, shall manage the affairs of the Society.

*Elected Executive Officers.* Section 2. The elected executive officers of the Society shall consist of the President and the Vice-President. With the approval of the membership, additional executive officers may be elected.

- a. *Eligibility.* Any individual who has been a member for at least one year and whose dues are paid for the current year, shall be eligible for election as an executive officer.
- b. *Term.* Executive officers shall be elected for a one-year term and shall be eligible for re-election for one additional term.
- c. *Duties.* The duties of the officers shall be as follows.

(1) The *President*, in consultation with the other executive officers and with other members as appropriate, shall prepare the professional program and the agenda for the order of business at the Annual Meeting and shall preside at Society and Executive Council meetings. He shall appoint committees other than the Nominating Committee; sign or authorize to be signed the warrants on the Secretary-Treasurer except for fixed expenditures which the Executive Council authorizes; and represent the Society and perform such other duties consistent with his office as chief executive of the Society.

(2) The *Vice-President* shall preside in the absence or incapacity of the President. In case of vacancy in the office of President, he shall perform the duties of the President until the next annual election. He shall assemble any proposed amendments to the Constitution which any member or members may submit to the Executive Council at least four months prior to the next Annual Meeting and to the Secretary-Treasurer for transmission to members with the notice of the next Annual Meeting.

#### *Appointed Executive Officers.* Section 3.

- a. The *Secretary-Treasurer* shall maintain the records of the Society, including the Constitution, the list of members with their titles and the proceedings of meetings of the Society and its Executive Council, and other documents and related files pertaining to the Society. He shall cause the membership list with titles and addresses to be circulated to the members at least once every two years. He shall receive all

moneys, provide for their safekeeping in a recognized bank, pay authorized warrants against those moneys, and make a report at the Annual Meeting on the receipts, expenditures, and financial condition of the Society. He shall cause to be circulated to the members at least three months before the Annual Meeting such materials as may be appropriate including those specified in this Constitution: Notification of the time, place, and preliminary program of the Annual Meeting, any proposals for amendment to this Constitution, and the slate to be voted upon. He shall serve as the Business Editor of the Society's professional journal.

- b. The *Editor of the Comparative Education Review* shall be responsible to the Board of Directors for the publication of the Society's professional journal.

**Executive Council.** Section 4. These four officers together with the immediate past president will form the Executive Council. On behalf of the members, the Executive Council shall manage the business of the Society between annual meetings except where otherwise specified in this Constitution.

**Board of Directors.** Section 5. The Board of Directors shall consist of not more than nine members elected from among members of the Society eligible for office.

- a. **Term.** Members of the Board of Directors shall be elected for a 3-year term and shall be eligible for re-election for an additional term. In the first annual election after this Constitution enters in force, three members of the Board shall be elected for one year, three for two years, and the rest for three years in order that a portion of the members on the Board shall be elected each year thereafter.

- b. **Functions.** The Board of Directors shall choose one of its members to serve as a Chairman; appoint the Secretary-Treasurer, Editor, and Business Editor of the Society's professional journal; approve the Editor's nominees to the Board of Editors; serve as the Nominating Committee to receive nominations from members for elective posts, prepare the slate, and submit it to the Secretary-Treasurer in time for inclusion with the notice to members concerning the next Annual Meeting; and cause the accounts of the Society to be audited not less frequently than once every two years.

**Board of Editors.** Section 6. The Board of Editors shall be composed of distinguished persons in comparative education or related fields nominated by the Editor and approved by the Board of Directors. The Board of Editors shall assist the Editor in the performance of his duties.

**Committees.** Section 7. The President shall appoint committees not otherwise provided for in this Constitution.

### ARTICLE III. ELECTIONS

**Frequency.** Section 1. Elections shall be held annually for the appropriate number of members to serve on the Board of Directors and for the elected executive offices of the Society.

**Method.** Section 2. Elections shall be by ballot forwarded in sealed envelopes to reach the Secretary-Treasurer at least five days before the opening of the Annual Meeting or so delivered on the eve of the opening of the Annual Meeting. Tellers appointed by the President shall open and tally the ballots. A majority of votes cast shall be necessary for election provided at least thirty members voted in the election. The tellers shall inform the President of the names of members elected on the first ballot and the names of any posts for which no candidate received sufficient votes for election together with the names of the two members receiving the highest number of votes for such posts. In the business meeting of the Society held during the Annual Meeting, the President shall announce the names of those elected for particular posts; announce the names of the two candidates receiving the highest number of votes for each post for which there were insufficient votes for election, request any additional nominations from the floor; and proceed with a call for voting and tallying of votes until the posts are filled.

**Installation.** Section 3. Newly elected officers and members of the Board of Directors shall be installed by the President during the business meeting held during the Annual Meeting at which they were declared elected. When the President is succeeding himself, the Vice-President shall install the President before the others are installed.

### ARTICLE IV. MEETINGS

**Annual Meeting.** Section 1. The Annual Meeting shall include a professional program and a business session.

- a. **Time and Place.** The Annual Meeting shall be held at a time and place to be determined by the President in consultation



with the Executive Council and others as appropriate. Where possible, it shall be held in conjunction with the meetings of other professional organizations having related interests.

- b. *Quorum.* At least fifteen members whose dues are paid for the current year shall constitute a quorum.
- c. *Legislation.* When a quorum is present at a business session, the members so assembled shall act as the legislative body of the Society. They shall determine policy questions and other business brought before the members by the President, the Executive Council, and/or the members unless authority for action is delegated elsewhere by the provisions of this Constitution. Nothing in this Constitution shall prevent any member in such business meetings from bringing before the Society a matter of business not listed on the agenda. When such matters represent new proposals for the amendment of this Constitution, they shall be referred after discussion and without final action to the Executive Council for appropriate processing. Other new proposals may be referred by the assembled membership to the Executive Council for appropriate investigation and recommendation to be acted upon by the assembled membership.
- d. *Minutes.* The Secretary-Treasurer shall prepare a digest of the program and business deliberations at the Annual Meeting and shall cause it to be distributed to the members not later than three months after the Annual Meeting either through the pages of the Society's professional journal or through a separate mailing.

*Regional Meetings.* Section 2. Regional professional meetings shall be arranged by the Executive Council with appropriate announcement to the membership. Only business of a regional nature which is not inconsistent with the policies of the Society shall be decided at such meeting.

*International Meetings.* Section 3. International meetings and seminars of a professional nature shall be arranged by the Executive Council with appropriate announcement to the membership. Business requiring legislative action by the members of the Society shall not be transacted at such meetings.

#### ARTICLE V. PUBLICATIONS

*Journal.* Section 1. The Society shall publish a professional journal which shall be distributed

to members without further cost other than membership dues.

*Other Publications.* Section 2. Other professional publications may be authorized by the membership of the Executive Council when feasible within the policies of the Society and the financial resources available.

#### ARTICLE VI. FINANCES

*Fiscal Year.* Section 1. The fiscal year of the Society shall begin on June 1 and end on May 31 of the following calendar year.

*Annual Dues.* Section 2. The amount of annual dues shall be determined by the members of the Society. When a proposal is to be made for an increase in the annual dues, it shall be brought to the attention of members at least three months before decision is to be made at a business session held during the Annual Meeting. Annual dues shall be remitted to the Secretary-Treasurer and shall be due not later than June 1 of the fiscal year for which they are to apply. In the case of new members, annual dues shall be credited for the current fiscal year when received prior to the time for the Annual Meeting. When received during or after the Annual Meeting they shall apply for the current and next fiscal year. Payment of annual dues for the current fiscal year shall entitle the member to the right to participate in professional and business meetings of the Society, to vote on matters to be determined by the membership, to receive the Society's professional journal, and to such other rights and privileges as may be accorded to all members of the Society.

#### ARTICLE VII. RULES OF ORDER

*Roberts' Rules of Order, Revised* shall govern the handling of the Society's business sessions except as may be otherwise provided in this Constitution.

#### ARTICLE VIII. AMENDMENTS

This Constitution may be amended by a favorable vote by mail from two-thirds of the members of the Society, provided the procedure prescribed in Article III Section 2 and in the Article IV. Section 1. c. has been followed. Ballots which are not returned will be considered as affirmative votes.

#### ARTICLE IX. ENTRY INTO FORCE

The Constitution shall enter into force at the time and in the form in which it is adopted by a vote of the members. This Constitution comes into force on June 1, 1959.

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